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ABSTRACT

A relationship exists between rural schools and rural development. Being an integral part of rural communities and society, these schools are affected by the forces at work within and on their society. Rural society, communities, and schools have been changed by massive forces of industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization. Migration accelerated as inequities between rural and urban areas became more visible. The school is a major force in improving opportunity and the quality of life. Therefore, schools are a mechanism for development and can be strategic forces in development efforts to improve rural communities, then creating conditions under which they can perform more effectively as educational institutions. This paper provides: (1) an overview of the growing interest and concern in development at various levels, (2) a review of the functions of schools in past development, (3) impediments schools confront as a development mechanism, (4) functions schools might perform in rural development, and (5) some specific actions schools might take to accelerate development in rural communities and to improve educational quality. (NQ)

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# RURAL SCHOOLS AS A MECHANISM FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

BY

EDWARD O. MOE

AND

LEWIS R. TAMELYN

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# RURAL SCHOOLS AS A MECHANISM FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

## I. INTRODUCTION

Why A Paper on Rural Schools and Rural Development?

The relationships between rural schools and rural development are so obvious they are likely to be elusive. Some clarification of the more important relationships is needed. Rural schools do not exist in a vacuum. They are an integral part of rural communities and rural society, and are affected by the forces at work within and upon rural society. Massive forces of industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization as they have altered American society generally have profoundly changed rural society, rural communities, and rural schools.

At the beginning of our national life, nineteen of every twenty Americans were in the rural population. Many of our ideas, values, and aspirations were shaped under rural conditions. Agricultural and rural fundamentalism became, and in some senses remains, an important theme in American thought. We continued to be a predominately rural nation from 1790 until 1920, and were 44 percent rural as late as 1940. In many of the national agricultural programs initiated in the twenties, thirties, and forties, rural areas which had been thought to be the most advantaged and the "best" part of American society came to be called the most disadvantaged. Serious questions of equity in income, opportunities, and services emerged. Following World War II rapid continuing depopulation of rural areas created fundamental problems for communities, for all rural institutions, and for the rural school.

Rural people were aptly called "the people left behind," and were found to have the highest percentage levels of poverty, the poorest housing, the most inadequate medical care, and the lowest levels of education. As inequities between rural and urban areas became more visible they tended to accelerate migration. While agricultural development policies based primarily on the substitution of capital for labor provided some help for farmers, they tended also to accelerate migration and to depress conditions in the total rural community. The burden on rural schools increased while at the same time their support was restricted.

Basic questions of the functions of schools, of their goals, of the roles they were to take, of what they were to teach, of size and scale, of costs, and of support had to be rethought. Those engaged in development of rural schools became convinced that one can not fundamentally improve rural schools by working exclusively on the school. Rural communities, rural society, the support agencies for education, and in fact, the total society had to be taken into account.

Rural development, whatever it comes to mean, creates a new situation with new opportunities. A program which attempts to foster "balanced national development" and to provide opportunities "to work and to enjoy a high quality of life for an increased number of Americans dispersed throughout our nation" has significant implications for rural communities, for rural education, and for society in general (Sec. 501, Title V, Rural Development Act of 1972). In order to help establish a different set of conditions for rural education, efforts

are being made to create jobs and investment opportunities; to improve education, health and medical care, and other services; to improve community facilities; and to create the conditions under which rural people can improve their well being through their own efforts. A number of alternative futures seems possible. The increasing desire of people to live in small towns or rural areas within commuting distance of a larger center is suggestive of the changing situation, and the more optimistic view of rural and small town residence.

The brighter economic outlook for farmers is another significant factor. With higher prices and all-out attempts to increase production, farm income has risen and it will remain at high levels. This may create new demands for goods and services and help improve the general economic outlook in rural areas. (It could, on the other hand, ignite another spiral of capital substitution for labor, and create pressure for further depopulation.)

The school is not only a beneficiary of national, state, and local development programs. It has been and it is now a major force in improving opportunity and the quality of life. It is the perspective of this paper that schools are in this sense a mechanism for development, and they can be strategic forces in development efforts to help improve rural communities. By doing so, the schools can create the conditions under which they can perform more effectively as educational institutions.

What the Paper Purports to Do

This paper offers the following:

1. Provides an overview of the growing interest and concern in development at various levels;

2. Reviews the functions of schools in development as they have been performed in the past;
3. Identifies impediments schools confront as a mechanism in development;
4. Explores functions schools might perform in rural development; and
5. Suggests some specific actions schools might take to accelerate development in rural communities and to improve the quality of education provided by the school.

## II. DEVELOPMENT IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

Development has become a major theme in contemporary society. Following World War II, ambitious and widely-hailed programs were launched to improve American society; to modernize so-called underdeveloped societies; to accelerate rates of economic growth; to foster improvements in social institutions, communities, and governments; and to enhance the capacity of people to perform in newly emerging occupations and social roles.

Confronted with rapid, relentless, accelerating rates of change, and threatened with obsolescence and decay, the ideas of development and renewal, particularly self-renewal for individuals and systems, proved heady medicine indeed. Reassured by a strong faith in technology we set out to change American society and the world.

Within the United States and in other countries, achievements in development to date certainly have not been what the developers, whether theoreticians, policy makers, planners, administrators, or activists, had hoped. At the same time many things have been attempted, and a rich basis now exists for the redefinition of fundamental problems.

Levels - Aspects of Development

As was predictable, the great attention given development spawned many different ideas and assumptions as to what development is and the processes by which it is to be achieved. Programs for development were launched under such titles as national, regional, area, community, municipal, rural, and urban development. Different

emphases were expressed through such concepts or bodies of concepts as human, social, economic, natural resources, technological, political, institutional, and educational development; and social and cultural change.

One can sort out the attempts at development and array them at various levels, ranging from the individual to the national.

Individual and Self-Development; Self Renewal. Development at this level was popularized in 1963 with the publication of the book Self-Renewal, The Individual and the Innovative Society by John W. Gardner. It proved a powerful stimulus to ideas about development.

Organization and Institution Development; Organization Renewal. Organization development is conceived both as being a means for increasing the effectiveness of organizations as well as creating the climate needed for self-renewing, self-developing individuals. A rich and provocative literature has emerged in the field. Institutional development is conceptualized in somewhat similar terms, and frequently because of its concern with organizational forms is indistinguishable from organization development.

Community Development. Communities encompass both individuals and organizations. Concern with the community as a level of analysis, as a major variable, as an entity to be developed, and as a strategy or set of processes in development, led to something akin to a movement both in the United States and in the world. A rich literature and a number of professional societies have come into being to pursue this interest.

Multi-County-Sub-State Planning and Development Districts. With the decline of traditional communities and counties, and the continuing

reorganization of social and economic life, multi-county districts have emerged as important units in planning and development. They are a more realistic basis for working on many problems.

The State. States have been and will become even more important as units in development. State planning and development programs have become forces in the pursuit of development.

Rural and Urban Development; Multi-State Regions. Counties and states are enveloped in regions and are parts of rural and/or urban areas. Programs, as well as centers and institutes which conduct programs, have emerged to deal with development at these levels. Both rural and urban development have become national policy goals even though the terms imply sets of conditions rather than entities or units.

National Development. This is the highest level, one within which the levels listed above can be subsumed. Many countries have carefully planned, coherent policies and programs for national development. U. S. growth and development policies are somewhat fragmented and are expressed in a variety of legislation and executive documents. Nonetheless, these development policies play a major influence on what happens within the country, including what happens in rural areas and rural communities.

Identification of these seven levels helps clarify a significant point. While development is conceived as occurring at the different levels, there are important reciprocal relationships between the levels. What happens at one level can either encourage or support development at other levels, or function as constraints and restraints at other levels. U. S. growth policies, for example, have tended to assume a

timeless, spaceless society. Emphasis on full employment or improvement of services at the national level or in urban areas was presumed to produce benefits which would trickle out and serve rural areas. In many cases this did not happen, and in fact, urban-rural inequities were increased. Explicit concern now about balanced national development with appropriate emphasis on both rural and urban areas can make a critical difference over the next several decades.

A Perspective on Development

Searching questions have been raised and continue to be raised about what development is, and what distinguishes it from something which is not development. There is general recognition that the concept is at the same time both relatively simple and horrendously complicated. There seems to be somewhat general acceptance of the idea that it connotes improvements in the position of men and nations with respect to certain key variables such as wealth, enlightenment, dignity, capacity, political effectiveness, and freedom (Warwick, 1968: p. 495). It is also thought to imply, whether used in botany, engineering, psychology, child development, economics, sociology, or other disciplines, an orderly unfolding or progression toward some implied or projected terminal state regarded as desirable: such as adulthood, maturity, self-sustained economic growth, differentiation, or quality of life.

One may view the conceptual difficulty in development, in part, as rooted in the so-called normative problem. Development is inescapably a normative concept. Men individually and collectively attempt to attain states of affairs or conditions which for whatever reasons

they see as more desirable than what presently exists. One can not deal with development without involving internal and external yardsticks in analysis.

Research and Development in Society-The Larger, More Basic Issues

It is increasingly clear that contemporary society benefits from and suffers from an explosion in knowledge, particularly scientific knowledge and the technologies related thereto. This knowledge explosion is the basis for the industrial, urban, and bureaucratic revolutions in the modern world. And it is these forces which have produced the society and the communities of today and which attempt to deal with the problems of the nation, of rural and urban areas, of communities. It is these forces of which education must be conceived.

Industrialization of American society has changed agriculture and rural life. Agricultural production has increased sharply, size of farms has increased, capital has been substituted for labor, and farms have become highly mechanized production units. The reduced demand for labor has been a major factor in the depopulation of rural areas. Questions of who controls agriculture have become important issues. Basic changes in transportation and communication have altered time and spatial relationships with far reaching effects. Urbanization has concentrated population in and around cities, led to decline in non-metropolitan communities, quickened the tempo of life, raised levels of sophistication, and created severe conflicts in values. Bureaucratization has increased the size and complexity of organizations, concentrated social and economic power, increased interdependence, and produced personal feelings of isolation and powerlessness.

Such factors have set the conditions and have led to the demand for development.

Ways of Using Knowledge and Specialized Competence Have Produced Isolation

It is clearly evident that significant achievements of American society - the creation of scientific knowledge and specialized competence and the way knowledge and competence have been used - have created basic problems for rural society and rural communities. Applications of science in agriculture while increasing production have led to the depopulation of rural areas and the reduction of viability of rural communities. This is a matter of size and scale of both farms and communities and the availability of resources. Many services in rural areas have deteriorated, and others are no longer available. Informal self-help arrangements have declined also.

At the same time, the development of new professionals and new occupations in education, health and medical care, social welfare, employment, religion, recreation and other fields, and the placing of this competence in both the public and private sectors has had unintended consequences. Some classical forms of isolation and estrangement have emerged in all communities: the separation and isolation of agencies from each other; the separation and isolation of agencies from the community; estrangement of agencies from both the people they serve and those they might potentially serve.

Many factors have contributed to this isolation. Once agencies were established, whatever their area of competence, they became possessive of programs and areas of work. These were their "property" and they were defensive about any intrusion by other agencies or by

the community. At the same time, the community more or less assigned responsibility for particular programs to an agency. Frequently the community was pleased to be rid of it as a general responsibility.

The isolation of agencies from each other and from the community, together with specialization and professionalization of agency staffs, led to an estrangement from the people served or to be served. This estrangement was further increased by programs and services which did not meet the needs of people in rural areas and by conceptions of the helping function which tended to force people receiving help into a paralyzing passivity.

What has emerged within most communities, then, is an enormously complex array of specialized organizations, programs, and services with a built-in dilemma of major proportions. On the one hand, there is the array of public and private services with inter-connections between the local and national levels; and on the other, both at the community and national levels, there is difficulty in relating these services to each other in such a way that an effective attack can be made on significant problems. These problems may be education, aging, rehabilitation, alcoholism, poverty, drug abuse, unemployment, or youth services, or they may be the composite difficulties confronting neighborhoods or communities. In either case, the problems usually transcend the services of any specific organization and demand the cooperation and articulation of many services and the work of many agencies.

Not only is this a major difficulty for individuals and communities, it is also a problem for the organizations and agencies

offering services. Under conditions which now exist it is impossible for an agency, however great its resources may be, to achieve its own objectives by working alone. To be effective, each must actively relate what it does to the work of other agencies and organizations. The dynamic properties of the situation "arise not simply from the interaction of the component organizations," observe Emery and Trist (1965) "but also from the field itself. The ground is in motion."

While it is quite clear that this is what is needed (or even demanded) if constructive efforts at improving the quality of human services are to be made, agencies and their staffs find themselves trapped. School administrators and the executives of other agencies and their staff members talk eloquently of comprehensive programs, cooperation, and coordination, but efforts to achieve these conditions are frequently weak to the point of futility.

Institutions, Patterns and Processes in Research and Development

Given the critical needs for research and development (R&D) both for rural areas and rural schools, one sees that the present systems for its provision are inadequate. In fact, it is difficult to determine what the present systems are. There is great need for theoretical and empirical analysis of the present systems and what the alternatives are for performing these functions.

What are the alternatives, for example, in the ways or patterns for performing R&D; or in providing R&D services to rural areas and rural institutions such as education? What are the alternatives in organizational or institutional settings for different patterns of delivery? Increasing interest in rural development has accelerated discussion of such questions.

In light of the above discussion, and the current thinking about R&D for rural areas and rural schools, it is clear that a number of significant factors should be taken into account in the design of such systems:

1. The highly localized nature of development of rural areas and rural schools, and the strong traditions of local control make increased capacity for problem solving and knowledge utilization at the local level a basic necessity.
2. At the same time, if the systems are to function effectively, the problem solving and knowledge utilization capacities at each of the levels identified above need to be increased.
3. Increased knowledge generation and knowledge delivery capacities need to be created at each level, and particularly at the levels primarily charged with this function.
4. Stronger linkages among the levels need to be devised, and these linkages should strengthen two-way exchange.
5. The reciprocal nature and potential reciprocal support of R&D for rural areas and rural schools should be recognized and built into the system. Rural education, for example, should take into account emerging R&D systems for rural development. At the same time the new R&D systems for rural development should specifically take into account the systems operating in rural education. It appears that relationships between these

R&D systems range from tenuous at best to non-existent. Separation and isolation seem to be the mode.

6. The role of citizens and citizen or community leadership is critical. It should be a major element in any R&D system.
7. The system should make use of the capabilities of public and private universities and colleges including community colleges, and the capabilities of private research enterprises not associated with higher education.

Emphasis on R&D and the search for new and more adequate models is reassuring. It is likely that clarification of what the problems are will lead to new and more adequate solutions.

## III. ACCELERATING INTEREST IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

It is a major theme of this paper that interest in rural development is accelerating and that this interest is a part of the growing concern about development generally. We do not see rural development as agricultural or rural fundamentalism in a new guise or form. At the same time it is recognized that these forces exist, and that in many ways they are a built-in part of our system. What is needed, then, is a clear explication of some of the basic issues in rural development which help explain the increasing interest.

### Some Major Issues in Rural-Non-Metropolitan Areas

At this point, for clarification, it is proposed that rural be simply defined as the people and the land areas not included in standard statistical metropolitan areas. Or in other words, the terms rural and non-metropolitan are synonymous, and are made up of the people and land areas outside counties containing cities of 50,000 or more. Some of the problems in the definition of rural are explored in a later section of the paper.

Some of the major issues in rural areas are listed below with a brief description of what the issue is about.

Quality of Life and Environment. This is a pervasive issue and affects people in both rural-non-metropolitan and metropolitan areas. The particular concerns in rural-non-metropolitan areas are the decline in population in many communities and counties, the decay of small communities, lack of employment and investment opportunities, the lack

of or deterioration of social services such as education, health and medical care; changes in patterns of land use with threats to open space and agricultural lands; and the pollution of soil, water, and air.

Achieving a More Optimal Population Distribution. While it is difficult and somewhat impossible to define optimum population distribution, there is a strong feeling that both events and national growth and development policies have tended to concentrate population in large metropolitan areas, and have introduced many diseconomies of scale. Concentration of population has threatened many rural areas. Policies which would increase the attractiveness of rural areas generally and particularly smaller towns and cities are seen as supporting "a more optimal population distribution."

Increasing the Residential Options. Operation of forces identified above, and other forces became powerful constraints for migration. Individual options were reduced by these contraints, creating the conditions under which remaining in small towns and rural areas without heavy sacrifices in employment-income opportunities and in the services available is seen as an alternative in development. Pursuit of this alternative would increase the individual's options, and enable him to make his choices based more on his own desires and aspirations, and less on the basis of external constraints.

Overcoming Rural Urban Inequities. Another basic factor in the accelerating interest in rural development is the recognition of rural-urban inequities, and the desire to overcome these inequities. Costs and benefits of publicly supported growth and development programs have not been shared equitably by different sectors of society as

pointed out by Heady (1972: p. 2). Pursuit of national economic growth without regard to its spatial distribution helped to create the inequity and the imbalance in costs and benefits. The "real world is made up of different spatial sectors and different social and economic groups who were affected differentially by gains in the gross national product." This is always the case and public policies were not designed to equalize costs and benefits among the different groups.

Some measure of the inequity is indicated in per capita expenditures in various Federal programs. Erwin (1972: p. 4) cites Federal per capita expenditures in metropolitan areas as being four times greater for health services, four times greater for welfare, and three times greater for manpower development and training than they are in non-metropolitan areas. Inequities in Federal child services, aid to dependent children, head-start funds, and elementary and secondary education funds are also noted by Erwin.

Heady aptly summarizes the effects of this factor, "There are basic reasons for the current ground-swell of concerns over rural development. And the reasons are more basic than just more economic activity and employment in the countryside. The basic concern--is one of equity (Heady 1972: p. 1-2)."

Achieving Aspirations of Individuals and Effectiveness of Rural Communities. Basic social and economic forces in American society have taken a heavy toll on the rural-non-metropolitan community. Major national growth policies have tended to worsen the situation. Nonetheless, rural communities have proved remarkably resilient. They persist and the heavy outflow of population seems to be declining in many parts of

the country. Planned local development programs supported now by national rural development legislation seem a reasonable way of achieving greater effectiveness on the part of the community which, in turn, is seen as a way of creating a more effective environment for rural people. As Kuvlesky (1973: p. 322) points out with regard to rural youth:

> My interpretation of existing research findings with rural youth leads me to the conclusion that the vast majority of rural youth, for the better or for worse, are still imbued with the success ethic; they still desire to achieve higher social rank, more material amenities, and to improve their life chances compared to their parents. While they struggle with the transition from adolescence to adult status, as have all youth of all time, most do not reject the prime values and life goals of their parents...

Helping people, young people and older people too, to achieve their aspirations and to respond to opportunities is a high value in American society. Rural development is seen as a way of helping create opportunities in rural areas, and thereby creating the conditions under which people can achieve their aspirations through their own efforts.

Recognizing the Role of Public Policies. The present national effort in rural development is a second major attempt by the Federal government to foster the social and economic development of rural areas (Interim Report NCRS-3: 1972). The Homestead Act and the Morrill Act, creating the land grant colleges in 1862, were the significant features of our first major rural development effort. Vast quantities of land were placed in production and through education and research, labor and management resources achieved high levels of productivity. Major social and economic transformations ensued. This development effort was undoubtedly one of the most successful in history.

In keeping with the conditions, problems, and needs of the time, the basic strategy was one of agricultural development. The fit between the strategy and the conditions was admirable and success was the result. Unfortunately, we became addicted to this strategy and continued to apply it even under fundamentally different conditions. During the fifties and sixties, despite high agricultural surpluses, development efforts were still dominated by an agricultural development strategy and particularly with the capital substitution for labor formula which had worked so well in former years. Under post World War II conditions the results of this strategy were to worsen rather than improve the situation. By 1950 Mayer (1972) points out agriculture no longer functioned as a source of expanding employment. Expansion of agribusiness employment was not able to fill the need for jobs. Rural areas were forced to turn to the production of other goods and services. Only recently have we come to recognize this and to see that what is needed is a total rural development strategy - a strategy that takes into account the total rural area and its total economy, nonfarm as well as farm, and one which addresses itself to the well being of rural people as well as to how they make a living.

It is now recognized that the old agricultural strategy did not do this. The new rural development strategy is designed specifically to accomplish this within the framework of national policy. The long delay in accepting a total rural development strategy is in part due to the dominant role of agricultural leadership both in rural areas and in the Department of Agriculture, and the reluctance of agricultural leadership to accept anything other than an agricultural strategy.

There is high hope that the new strategy, aggressively pursued and backed with adequate resources, will give new life and vigor to rural areas.

The New Rural Development Legislation

The groundswell of interest in rural development found expression in legislation, particularly in two Acts - the Agriculture Act of 1970 and the Rural Development Act of 1972. These Acts stated a new national policy and provided a framework for stronger rural development programs.

Activities Prior to 1970

In the early 1950's the Department of Agriculture, largely due to the interest of Assistant Secretary True Morse, initiated a program in rural development.

Some ten years later the Area Redevelopment Act was passed and signed by the President. This Act administered by the Department of Commerce provided loans, grants, and other assistance to areas of high, persistent unemployment. Many of these areas were rural. About the same time the Department of Agriculture established its rural areas development programs.

Other new laws and amendments in the 1960's expanded the Area Redevelopment Act into the Economic Development and Accelerated Public Works Act which authorized Regional Development Commissions. The Departments of Labor, Housing and Urban Development; Health, Education, and Welfare; and the Environmental Protection Agency were given by new law broadened authorities for dealing with problems in the fields of education, skill training, housing, health, pollution, and underemployment, all involved in rural development.

Rural Area Development Committees were organized in all rural counties of the country. Farmers Home Administration personnel assumed the leadership of these committees which included representatives of the major agencies of the Department of Agriculture plus State and local officials. The leadership of these committees was transferred to the Extension Service under the Nixon Administration.

The Agricultural Act of 1970

Dissatisfied with the slow rate of progress in solving rural problems, Congressional leaders added Title IX of this Act entitled "Rural Development." Section 901 (a) of this title is called a "commitment of Congress" in which

> The Congress commits itself to a sound balance between rural and urban America. The Congress considers this balance so essential to the peace, prosperity and welfare of all our citizens that the highest priority must be given to the revitalization and development of rural areas.

Sections 901 (b) through 901 (f) provide for reports to the Congress on the location of Federal facilities in areas or communities of low population density; on planning assistance provided by the Department of Housing and Urban Development and the Department of Agriculture; on information and technical assistance to small communities and less populated areas in rural development; on the availability of telephone, electrical, water, sewer, medical, educational, and other government or government assisted services to rural areas, and the final section on the possibility of using the Farm Credit Administration and agencies in the Department of Agriculture to fulfill rural financial assistance requirements. These reports are useful compilations of what is being

done and how it is being done. This legislation was a significant turning point in national policy for rural development.

The Rural Development Act of 1972

Partly because of difficulties in coordinating activities of Federal agencies that are sources of funds for rural development and partly because the Department of Agriculture lacked authority and funds to carry forward a comprehensive rural development program, President Nixon proposed a system of special revenue-sharing for rural community development in 1971. However in 1972, the Congress passed sharply different rural development legislation. The overall provisions of the Act are outlined followed by a more detailed analysis of Title V.

The Rural Development Act of 1972 consists of six titles, each of which expands and strengthens the authorities and responsibilities of the Department of Agriculture.

Title I consists of several important amendments to the Consolidated Farmers Home Administration Act of 1961. Three major provisions of Title I are for community facility loans; business and industrial loans; and grants to public bodies to help develop private business enterprises. Title I is administered by the Farmers Home Administration (FHA) of the Department of Agriculture.

Community Facility Loans (Section 104). In the past, this FHA program has provided for water and waste disposal facilities for rural areas. The new regulations cover those facilities and any other community facility that provides essential services to people in rural areas and towns up to 10,000 population.

Business and Industrial Loans (Section 118a). FHA will guarantee loans by private lenders for developing or financing business or industry, increasing employment, and controlling or abating pollution. Any legal entity, either public or private, may borrow. Loan maturities vary, depending upon the purpose for which the money is used. The interest rate is determined by the borrower and lender, with FHA agreeing to cover up to 90 percent of any losses the lender may incur.

Preference in this program (and in the business grant program discussed below) is given to projects in towns of 25,000 population or less, or in open country. Projects may not be located in towns of 50,000 population or more, or in adjacent areas where population density is more than 100 persons per square mile.

Business Enterprise Grants (Section 118c). Public bodies may receive grants to facilitate the development of private business enterprises. Funds may be used to pay for acquisition and development of land and construction of buildings, equipment, access streets, roads, parking areas, utility extensions, water and waste systems, refinancing, and fees.

Title II and III amend the legislation which provides for the small watershed protection, resource conservation, and development programs. They authorize funds for additional cost-sharing for projects to provide water supplies and the protection of water quality for rural community and industrial development.

Title IV authorizes the appropriation of funds ($7 million annually for three years) to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to provide financial and technical assistance to State agencies in

cooperative efforts to organize, train, and equip local forces to prevent and suppress fires in rural areas and rural communities.

Title V authorized the appropriation and apportionment of funds for rural development extension programs, rural development research and small farm extension, research, and development programs.

Title VI expands the statutory missions of the Department of Agriculture to include rural development. It empowers the Secretary of Agriculture to coordinate the rural development work of all the departments and agencies of the Federal Government. It also directs executive departments and agencies of the Government to give "first priority" to rural areas in locating new field offices and installations.

Title V - Rural Development Research and Extension Programs

Some analysis of the provisions of Title V is appropriate since they are significant to the central concerns of this paper.

The purpose of the title, Section 501, is

> ...to encourage and foster a balanced national development that provides opportunities for increased numbers of Americans to work and enjoy a high quality of life dispersed throughout our Nation by providing the essential knowledge necessary for successful programs of rural development.

It is further the purpose of this title -

> (a) to provide multistate regional agencies, States, counties, cities, multicounty planning and development districts, businesses, industries, organization, Indian tribes on Federal and State reservations or other Federally recognized Indian tribal groups, and others involved with public services and investments in rural areas or that provide or may provide employment in these

areas the best available scientific, technical, economic, organizational, environmental, and management information and knowledge useful to them, and to assist and encourage them in the interpretation and application of this information to practical problems and needs in rural development;

(b) to provide research and investigations in all fields that have as their purpose the development of useful knowledge and information to assist those planning, carrying out, managing, or investing in facilities, services, businesses, or other enterprises, public and private, that may contribute to rural development;

(c) to enhance the capabilities of colleges and universities to perform the vital public service roles of research, transfer, and practical application of knowledge in support of rural development;

(d) to expand research on innovative approaches to small farm management and technology and extend training and technical assistance to small farmers so that they may fully utilize the best available knowledge on sound economic approaches to small farm operations.

Rural development extension and research are defined in Section 502(a) and 502(b):

Rural development extension programs shall consist of the collection, interpretation, and dissemination of useful information and knowledge from research and other sources... to...the units identified in 501(a) above.

Rural development research shall consist of research, investigations, and basic feasibility studies in any field or discipline which may develop principles, facts, scientific and technical knowledge, new technology, and other information. This information may be useful to... the agencies identified in 501(a) above.

Payment of funds to States under the Act are contingent upon the approval by the Secretary of Agriculture of an Annual Plan of

Work (Sec. 503(d)). The administration of State programs is the responsibility of the institution accepting the benefits of the Morrill Act of 1862 or the Land Grant University in the State. Furthermore, Title V is to be administered "in association with the programs conducted under the Smith-Lever (extension) Act and the Hatch (research) Act" (Sec. 504(b)). All other public and private colleges are eligible to participate and officials of these universities who wish to do so shall submit proposals to the Land Grant College (Sec. 504(e)).

The Land Grant University in each State is to designate an official to be responsible for extension and for research and an official to be responsible for overall coordination (Sec. 504(d)). The chief administrative official of the Land Grant College - the President or Chancellor - is to appoint a broadly based State Rural Development Advisory Council to review and approve State program plans, and to advise the chief administrative officer on matters pertaining to the program (Sec. 504(e)).

Section 505(a) requires that programs authorized under Title V shall be conducted as mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Land Grant University. Section 505(b) authorized the Secretary to prescribe what is to be included in the annual program plan. As specified in the regulations (Federal Register, 1973, Vol. 38, No. 201, p. 29023), the plan of work should include the following:

1. an identification of major problems which can be met by each extension and research program;
2. the relation of the program to ongoing planning and development efforts;

3. the organizational structure, including names and titles of the Advisory Committee;
4. separate concise statements describing each extension project, including objectives, procedures, personnel and other such information;
5. separate concise statements on each research program covering the information noted in 4 above;
6. a plan for evaluating the impact of each program;
7. provisions for making an annual progress report;
8. a budget statement.

The plan is also to include the programs of each cooperating university or college. All rural development research and extension efforts funded from other sources that contribute directly to the proposed programs are to be described.

To assure that the State plans under Title V support rural development efforts within the State three other important provisions are included in the regulations:

1. The programs proposed are to be in consonance and not inconsistent with other rural development programs and activities in the State. (Section 23.4(b) of the Guidelines.)
2. The elements within the plan are to have been discussed and considered jointly by the State Rural Development Advisory Council and appropriate State agencies as required in Section 23.4(c) of the Guidelines.

3. The plans are to be consistent with statewide comprehensive planning and development objectives. (Section 23.6(b)(1)(V) of the Guidelines.)

Regional Programs - The Regional Rural Development Centers

Title V authorizes funds to finance regional and extension programs in which universities in two or more states cooperate, or programs which are conducted by one university to serve two or more states. Since an adequate mechanism to conduct regional programs does not exist, the Department of Agriculture's Guidelines for Title V provide for the establishment of regional rural development centers. The centers are to be established by the directors of Extension and the State Agriculture Experiment Stations in the four land grant college regions.

The programs of the centers are to concentrate on the high priority knowledge, training, and personnel needs required for the research and extension staffs in the several States to conduct effective rural development research and extension work. Among the more important activities to be carried out by the centers are these: personnel development and consultation; synthesis of existing research knowledge and the interpretation of this knowledge of rural development program and policy purposes; the development of strategies and procedures on high priority rural development problems of regional significance; as funds permit, the conduct of research on high priority problems in rural development for which information is lacking; and the evaluation of rural development programs and policies.

The locations of the four centers are Cornell University in the Northeast; Iowa State University in the North Central States; Mississippi State University and Alcorn A&M College in the South; and at Oregon State University in the West. The centers offer an opportunity to test a mechanism not previously used in supporting rural development on a regional basis with specific backup to support State programs.

Level of Funding of Title V

In the initial discussions of Title V an appropriation of some 100 million dollars is discussed. The Act actually authorized 10, 15, and 20 million dollars for rural development and small farm research and extension for fiscal years 1974, 1975, and 1976. Unfortunately, the appropriation for 1974 was only three million or 1.5 million each for research and extension. A program for small farm research and extension was not funded at all.

To adjust to this low level of funding, programs are to concentrate on limited geographic or problem areas, to give emphasis to rural areas including cities and towns under 50,000 population, to involve other public and private colleges as appropriate in meeting high priority research and extension needs, to concentrate on jobs and income opportunities, to improve quality of life, to improve essential community services and facilities, to improve housing, and to enhance social processes to achieve these goals.

Through these adjustments an attempt is made to carry out the spirit of the Act. The low level of funding of Title V clearly indicates the reservations Congress and the Administration have about research and extension contributions to rural development. These same reservations

do not hold for other Titles of the Act. Under Title I, for example, 730 million dollars are available for FY 1974. This figure includes

-- 470 million for water and waste disposal;

-- 200 million for business and industry type projects;

-- 50 million for other community facilities;

-- 10 million for industrial development grants to public bodies.

The Rural Development Act of 1972 is a significant act. It provides the framework for developing and implementing programs which could make a critical difference in non-metropolitan or rural areas. While disappointment about the level of funding of Title V is understandable, the Act still provides opportunities to move rural development ahead. If Title V programs prove to have impact in the three year pilot period, a strong demand could be created for funding at a higher and a more realistic level.

Other Legislation - Proposed Legislation

A number of legislative proposals have been made which would strengthen rural development programs. Included among these are the act to create a Department of Community Development, the Better Communities Act, the Regional Development Act of 1973 (HR 7234, 93rd Congress), and the National Growth Policy Planning Act (S 1286, 93rd Congress).

The Regional Development Act of 1973 would establish a national development program and agency and regional development commission. There would be a special component for "rural America." In the Growth Policy Planning Act, Congress would, among other things, "redirect

beneficial economic activity and development to all underdeveloped regions in the nation."

Other planning and development acts are in the drafting stage. Recognition of the need for rural development and the magnitude of the problem will undoubtedly result in the passage of additional legislation in the next several sessions of Congress.

## IV. DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION

Not only is there increasing interest in rural development, but there are some basic concerns about rural education which persist as conditions have changed. While the term rural has lost much of its descriptive utility, it still connotes a wide range of conditions which must be taken into account if rural education is to achieve the quality desired for it. Part of the difficulty lies in the range of conditions in rural areas, such as low density, poverty, some heavy concentrations of Black, Spanish speaking, and Indian people, limited resources and out-moded social, economic, and political structures.

### General Concerns About Rural Education and Rural Schools

There are some persons, some in decision-making capacities, who deny that rural education exists. According to them the principles of good teaching and good school administration are general and have universal applicability; thus any effort to identify rural education is futile and unworthy of any scholarly endeavor. There are competent spokesmen for an opposite point of view. Howard Dawson (1954: p. 1) one of the most respected leaders in the field, points out:

> If the propositions are accepted that people learn in terms of their past experiences and from environmental influences, and that rural children and youth have unique experiences and environmental influences, it must be granted that the education of rural children and youth presents unique and identifiable problems. These unique experiences, resources and problems constitute the field of rural education. ...To ignore this distinctiveness may result about as disastrously for rural education as it would...if the logical rationalization were carried to the extreme.

The fact is that rural youth are not receiving the education required for their full participation in the society of today and tomorrow, despite the current national commitment to provide quality education for all.

Educational deficiencies in rural areas are of national concern for two major reasons: the deficiences create an impact far beyond the boundaries in which they occur and they handicap a sizable proportion of the nation's population.

Many rural residents find their educational background insufficient to secure adequate employment, especially as the economic structure of most areas becomes less centered on agriculture and its related services, and more diversified. Consequently, they become dissatisfied with rural life and its potential.

Many times rural migrants discover they are inadequately educated and unprepared to compete in the urban job market. Thus, an increased urban unemployment rate with its related economic, social and cultural problems result. The former rural resident becomes an alien in the urban environment.

Many of the basic deficiencies in rural education stem from the serious problems associated with personal poverty, community isolation, limited public services, lack of leadership, and the concomitant of these problems--insufficient taxable resources to support services and programs which are available elsewhere in the nation. The rural areas' natural assets--small size, close personal relationships, the traditional friendly and cooperative attitude of rural people and opportunities for grass roots involvement--have been insufficiently

capitalized upon to offset deficiencies in rural life and education.

> Rural schools do not readily adjust educational objectives or methods in the light of new information and needs. Traditional college preparation courses are emphasized, even though comparatively few students attend liberal arts colleges. Information is transmitted in the traditional teacher-talk verbal patterns. Curriculum emphasis on symbolic knowledge, rather than the real world of people and things, results in experiences which most rural students regard as irrelevant, obsolete, and ineffective. Thus, as many as 85 percent of rural students do not find rural education pertinent to their needs, and consequently, do not succeed in the school environment (Northwest Regional Education Laboratory, 1972).
>
> Such statistics emphasize the need for rural schools to change: to increase the range of curriculum alternatives; to provide opportunities for students to pursue personally relevant goals; to establish an open, flexible and inquiring learning environment within which each student can learn to become a self-directing, competent decision maker (Northwest Regional Education Laboratory, 1972, p. 13).

If rural schools are to change to achieve these conditions, schools, communities, educational support agencies, students, teachers, parents, administrators, and board members need to jointly define new ways to respond to the needs of rural youth. A national policy on rural education needs to be formulated (Haller: 1969), one which would deal with the problems of rural schools and which, at the same time, would build on their present strengths. Some major developments in education of significance to rural education are described below.

Creation of the National Institute of Education

The Congress has declared that "it will be the policy of the United States to provide to every person an equal opportunity to receive an education of high quality regardless of his race, color,

religion, sex, national origin, or social class" (Public Law 92-213, June 23, 1972, p. 93). Based on numerous studies and extensive testimony, the Congress has determined that at the present time the American educational system does not achieve this objective, and that there exist in our society pronounced inequalities of opportunity to receive a high quality education. Moreover, to achieve this objective, far more dependable knowledge regarding the processes of learning and education is required than currently exists. Due to current inequities of educational opportunity, and limited knowledge of how best to address the situation, Congress deemed that, "the Federal Government has a clear responsibility to provide leadership in the conduct and support of scientific inquiry into the educational process" (Public Law 92-213, June 23, 1972, p. 23).

To help achieve equal educational opportunity, Public Law 92-213, creating the National Institute of Education (NIE), was enacted by the 92nd Congress on June 23, 1972. NIE, located in the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, became operational in November 1972.

The key mandate of NIE is the fostering of coordinated research of sufficient scope and calibre to provide meaningful information to educators concerning ways to improve the quality and equality of education for all Americans. Specifically, the responsibilities of the NIE are to improve education, including career education, in these ways:

-- "helping to solve or to alleviate the problems, and achieve the objectives, of American education;

— advancing the practice of education as an art, science, and profession;

— strengthening the scientific and technological foundations of education; and

— building an effective educational research and development system" (Public Law 92-213, June 23, 1972, p. 94).

The legislation enacted by Congress stipulates a variety of activities consistent with the NIE objective--e.g., conduct of educational research, dissemination of findings, coordination of research, training, and other related activities. Educational research includes "research (basic and applied), planning, surveys, evaluations, investigations, experiments, developments, and demonstrations in the field of education." Fully 90% of the NIE budget must be consumed through grants or contracts which encompass these activities.

In its 1974 grants for research in education programs NIE identified five issues to which it invited the attention of researchers across the country.

Essential Skills. Research in learning and instruction on the essential skills involved in reading, writing, listening, and speaking (linquistic communication) at levels needed to function adequately in American cultures.

Relevance of Education to Work. Research on the various educational factors influencing occupational attainment and socioeconomic success, and the measurement of these variables.

Diversity, Pluralism and Opportunity in Educational Systems. Research on variability in educational organizations, programs, functions, and environments and their consequences for student learning, development,

motivation, behavior, and equal opportunity.

Production and Utilization of Knowledge. Examination of the production of research results; the systematic planning and development of alternative solutions to educational problems; the dissemination of research and development (R&D) results; and the utilization, adaptation, and implementation of scientific knowledge in education.

Efficiency and Productivity in Education. Research on improved measurements of the different types of efficiency and productivity relevant in education, and the policy changes influencing these measures.

It is readily apparent that all five of these issues have high significance for rural education and rural schools. This is an opportune time for seeking broad support for the amelioration of the problems confronting rural young people and rural schools (Kuvlesky: 1973: pp. 336-337). An important part of the solution is the development of self-renewing, self-developing educational structures in rural areas, and a research and development system in education which reaches and helps the smallest, most isolated rural school.

The three programs described below which have been funded by NIE are indicative of the growing interest in rural education. At this point they are not adequate to meet the needs that exist, but they do represent important efforts to find solutions to problems in rural education.

The Experimental Schools Programs in Rural Schools

The Experimental Schools program has had, since its inception, an interest in and commitment to supporting efforts at comprehensive change in small schools in rural areas. Judging by the responses to

the first two national competitions for Experimental Schools, held in January and April 1971, there was no question that small schools in rural areas welcomed the opportunity to be involved in comprehensive change efforts. But experience in these first two competitions also proved that the Experimental Schools guidelines, announcements, and funding procedures would have to be modified to meet the needs and conditions confronting rural schools.

Starting in June 1971, the Experimental Schools staff began the development of a program specifically and exclusively for small schools in rural areas. The development process included investigation of innovation in small schools, extensive discussions with experts in rural education and rural life, and the preparation of regulations, guidelines, and procedures specifically designed to be responsive to the uniqueness of small schools in rural areas and to encourage their participation in the Experimental Schools program. An announcement of the Competition for Small Rural Schools was sent in March 1972, to every school district with 2,500 or fewer students; a total of over 13,500 districts. The response again indicated the interest of small school districts to participate in comprehensive change efforts. Over 350 applications were received.

Each of the applications received was submitted to careful review and analysis to select those sites to receive funding. The review methods included a number of steps, involving a variety of consultants, many of whom were familiar with rural school experience, since they were products of such schools. These procedures insured a rigorous, thorough evaluation of all letters of interest submitted.

A final review of the applications resulted in the selection of six school districts as five-year Experimental Schools sites. The following are the school districts that were selected:

Constantine (Michigan) Public Schools;

Craig (Alaska) City Schools;

Hancock County (Kentucky) Public Schools;

Perry County (Mississippi) Public Schools;

Quilcene and Brinnon (Washington) Public Schools; and

South Umpqua (Oregon) School Districts.

On the basis of all of the information and recommendations provided, it was determined that there were a number of additional sites which, although not sufficiently prepared to begin operations immediately, presented significant comprehensive ideas worthy of initiation. After another careful review of the applications in this group, including new information provided by persons familiar with the district, the following six sites were recommended to receive one-year planning grants in order to further develop the ideas presented in the letters of interest:

Carbon County (Wyoming) School District #2;

Lead-Deadwood (South Dakota) Public Schools;

Okolona (Mississippi) Public Schools;

School Supervisory Union #58 (New Hampshire);

Wilcox (Arizona) Public School District; and

Hallock, Humboldt-St. Vincent, Karlstad, Kennedy and Lancaster (Minnesota) School Districts.

The Office of Education is interested in exploring the uniqueness of small school districts in order to determine ways to build upon their strengths in order to improve the quality of education available to students in these districts. The quality and extent of response were reassuring, indicating the desire of small rural school districts to engage in comprehensive reform efforts. This effort represents one of the first activities of the National Institute of Education. Each site shows promise of developing a comprehensive program of educational reform significant for other small rural schools and for American education in general.

The Rural Futures Development Strategies of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

"The Rural Futures Development Strategies (RFD) is a set of closely related ideas for making lasting and effective improvements in rural learning and living conditions through the involvement of local people--citizens, educators, students, and representatives of support agencies--in change decisions and activities (Stutz: 1972, pp. 1-2)." The strategies utilize the services of trained change process consultants who are external to the particular community, school or family in which they are working. The strategies rely heavily upon improving the effectiveness of participants by training in participation skills, by engaging participants in a systematic change process, and by employing some structures that insure broad representation and appropriate matches between tasks and task force membership. These structures, processes, and skills also are designed in such a way that the skillful participation of local people in making

and carrying out decisions related to educational change is self-renewing and therefore will last beyond external support.

Although the program's long-range objective is to improve learning opportunities for rural students by creating in rural school systems and communities the capability for systematic educational change, the more immediate objective is to increase the capability of rural citizens, educators, students, and family members to participate effectively in decisions that affect learning and living.

Five interrelated strategies are designed to accomplish these objectives. A Community-Centered Strategy involves citizens with their school board in deciding what changes need to be made and how to make them. A School-Centered Strategy engages the school staff in systematically improving the learning environment for students and in effectively implementing community-initiated changes. A Learner-Centered Strategy models a life-involvement, competency-based curriculum and teacher-development program. A Support Agency-Centered Strategy trains field consultants in State agencies, intermediate districts, and teacher-training institutions in skills and techniques for supporting the Community-Centered and School-Centered Strategies. Finally, a Family-Centered Strategy engages family members in systematically improving the learning environment for young children in the home. These strategies each evolve from a generic learning and change process model. The process is activated in rural schools, communities, and families by trained consultants and in rural classrooms by teachers with special competencies.

These strategies are implemented by several sets of products that range from training systems to resources for decision making. The development of these products is the five-year scope of work of the program. The immediate outcome is a set of tested products that encourage and facilitate the implementation of the RFD Strategies. The intermediate, expected outcomes have to do with the utilization of the products by training-centers, rural schools, communities, families, and state and intermediate educational agencies. The ultimate expected outcomes are in terms of measurable improvements in rural schools, families, and communities where the RFD Strategies are used, and in a number of "quality of life" indicators that reflect the program's perceptions of healthy, enhancing learning environments.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) is an information system designed to help teachers, principals, education specialists, administrators, school board members, parents, students, and researchers obtain current and historical information in the field of education. As a project of the National Institute of Education, ERIC acquires, abstracts, indexes, stores, retrieves, and disseminates the most significant and timely reports and other materials. The primary objective of this system is to provide the acquired information quickly and inexpensively to a wide variety of users.

ERIC consists of a coordination staff, supportive technical sub-contractors, plus 16 decentralized clearinghouses, each one focusing on a separate area of education.

ERIC/CRESS (Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools) is responsible for acquiring, abstracting, indexing, and disseminating documents related to all aspects of American Indian Education, Mexican American Education, Migrant Education, Outdoor Education, Rural Education, and Small Schools. Documents submitted to CRESS include research reports, newsletters, conference papers, bibliographies, curriculum guides, speeches, journal articles, and books. ERIC/CRESS is located on the campus of New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Bibliographies and state-of-the-art papers are prepared and disseminated by CRESS. CRESS is staffed to answer requests pertaining to the use of the ERIC system in general as well as the operations of the Clearinghouse itself. Staff members can also provide consultation services on the establishment and use of information centers. CRESS is equipped to conduct computer searches through the entire ERIC files, including both RIE and CIJE.

RIE (Research In Education) is a monthly abstract journal published by the Government Printing Office. RIE contains abstracts of documents from the Clearinghouse network; abstracts of on-going research projects; and indexes by subject, institution, and author or principal investigator. Articles from selected journals are indexed in CIJE (Current Index to Journals in Education) published monthly by Macmillan Information Corporation in New York City. More than 700 journals are indexed, some cover-to-cover and others whenever the articles have some relationship to education.

The Road Ahead

Strategic advances in the quality of rural education can be made. The Rural Development Act of 1972 and other efforts in rural development together with activities in the improvement of education provide a framework for action.

## V. SOME CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS

What is Rural?

A typical attitude of many urban dwellers toward rural communities is one of nostalgia. The term "rural" brings to the mind's eye a picture of endless fields of wheat or corn, contented cows grazing in lush green pastures, and decent God-fearing people tilling the soil and living the "good life." So too, rural communities elicit pictures of quaint, charming and delightful villages, the landscape dotted with small churches with white steeples, small schools, together with an uncomplicated, simple way of life. For many people, the typical belief is that Rural America is an anachronism in our urban society, a piece of America of long ago, although yearned for by many urbanites.

If asked about today's rural communities many have only a vague notion of what they are like while others recall the plight of the migratory farm worker; the attempts to unionize the grape workers in California; or the poverty of Applachia. Many other people think of situations like "Mayberry R. F. D." with its Andy, Floyd, George and Aunt Bess--simple, uncomplicated folks from a middle class town having a few real problems--who are "doing just fine, thank you."

One can see traces of this nostalgia toward rural life in the movements toward organic foods, community schools, arts and crafts of yesteryear, decentralization of government, and the return to nature syndrome. Increasing numbers of people in urban areas beset by one frustration after another - crime in the streets, unemployment, boredom--have developed an emotional yearning to return to a rural

environment which is seen as strong, secure, self-sufficient and above all free--where one is free to live his life in harmony with nature.

People, whether they be urbanites, suburbanites, or ruralites, should have alternate life styles. But these alternative life styles should be based upon fact not fiction, upon reality not fantasy.

Today's rural communities must be examined in terms of today's realities; not of myths. It must be understood that these myths have, in part at least, caused the human tragedy that permeates rural communities today. This tragedy can be shown through the high rate of poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, underemployment, infant mortality, economic exploitation, migration, and lack of opportunity for "the people left behind."

There is one myth that is the core of all other myths. That is, at that point in time when we as a nation decided that we indeed had become an urban nation, the transition from rural to urban had been completed. We left Rural America behind, forgotten, to shift for itself. We assumed that it could maintain its most basic characteristics - a self-sufficient, prosperous, independent, small, stable, community-centered society, supported by a family farm-based economy.

This is the point at which our memory and our nostalgia crystallized--neither seeing nor understanding the changes taking place. This was a false assumption, for it is tragically clear that Rural America as it has been traditionally conceived and run is well nigh non-existent today.

More and more the large industrial complexes and corporations have invaded rural areas and have threatened the family farm as the mainstay of Rural America. Agribusiness, in many senses, has come to dominate agriculture. It is the disparity between these two perspectives that accounts in large measure for the differences in the concept of rural as people envision it and as it actually exists (Preliminary Report, Task Force on the Land Grant College Complex, 1972).

The view that Rural America is sparsely populated and that we are overwhelmingly an urban nation requires some explanation. While it is true in a general sense, it has had damaging consequences and has tended to preclude a fair consideration of rural people, problems, needs, and solutions.

"Although declining, the rural population (as it is determined by established census definitions) still exceeds the combined population of America's 100 largest cities. It is large enough so that Rural America may be classified as the world's ninth largest country (only China, India, U. S. S. R., U. S., Japan, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Brazil have total populations that exceed the rural population of the United States). No country in Europe, and only one in Latin America (Brazil), has a total population that exceeds the size of America's Rural Population" (Rural Education News 1970: Vol. 22, No. 1.).

Implicit in the nature of rural is a lower level of population density. Using density as a yardstick we get the following picture:

> The accepted minimum measurement of an urban environment is a population density of 1,000 or more per square mile. The measure of sub-urbanization is a population of 500 per square

> mile. Approximately one-third of the states, seventeen (17) to be exact, do not contain a single county with a population density of 500 persons per square mile. Twenty-three (23) states have a population density of less than 50 persons per square mile and thirty-seven (37) states have a density of less than 100 persons per square mile" (Rural Education News, 1970: Vol. 22, No. 1.).

It is densities such as this that have given rise to the concept of the social costs of space.

According to the new urban-rural definition adopted for the 1970 Census, the urban population comprises all persons living in (1) places of 2,500 inhabitants or more incorporated as cities, boroughs, and villages and towns except towns in New England, New York, and Wisconsin; (2) the densely settled urban fringe, including both incorporated and unincorporated areas, around cities of 50,000 or more; and (3) unincorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more outside any urban fringe. The remaining population is classified as rural. A similar definition was used in 1960.

The rural population is divided into the rural-farm population, which comprises (1970) all rural residents living on places (a) of at least 10 acres that sold $50 worth of agricultural products in the reporting year, or (b) any rural place that sold at least $250 worth of agricultural products in the reporting year. The rural-nonfarm population is the remaining rural population.

Census definitions of rural and urban and farm and nonfarm have largely lost their meanings, except for purposes of decennial comparisons. However, this may be a sufficient justification to continue their usage.

Dawson (1954), cited earlier in this paper, suggests that there are two clearly identifiable characteristics of Rural America even if one uses traditional definitions.

> The first is relatively low density of population. Rural people live in smaller groups and farther apart than city people. The second characteristic is that rural people are primarily engaged in farming, or extracting natural resources, or in processing resources of the immediate surroundings, or in performing services for people so engaged. This concept includes open country, farm villages and communities or people engaged in mining, lumbering, fishing, and related processing activities, and also the people engaged in personal, professional, and business services in such communities.

Non-Metropolitan - A Contemporary Definition of What is Rural

With the lack of reality in the established definitions of rural and urban, it would seem to make more sense to divide the population initially into metropolitan and non-metropolitan. These are fairly easy distinctions to make. Non-metropolitan or the new rural would be defined as in the 1970 Census as people and places outside of counties containing a city of 50,000 or more inhabitants. Such a definition would substantially increase the rural population. The rural non-metropolitan population could then be arrayed by size of place including those living on farms.

When this is done the population of the United States by residence would be portrayed as in Table 1. Some 63.8 million would be rural-non-metropolitan. This is 31.4 percent of the total population. The metropolitan population would comprise 68.6 percent of the total U. S. population for 1970.

Table 1. — 1970 Population of the United States by residence: metro, nonmetro, rural nonfarm and rural farm 1/

| | Metro | Nonmetro | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Million | | |
| Urban places of at least 50,000 | 73.3 | — | 73.3 |
| All other urban population | 49.7 | 26.3 | 76.0 |
| Rural nonfarm (places of less than 2,500, open country, except farm) | 14.9 | 30.7 | 45.6 |
| Rural farm 2/ | 1.5 | 6.8 | 3/ 8.3 |
| Total | 139.4 | 63.8 | 203.2 |

1/ Residence definitions used in the 1970 Census. Rural figures are corrected and do not correspond to originally published Census figures.

2/ A farm is (a) a rural place of at least 10 acres that sold at least $50 worth of agricultural products in the reporting year or (b) any rural place that sold at least $250 worth of agricultural products in the reporting year.

3/ Note that this estimation of the farm population is significantly less than the 1970 count of 9.7 million as given in Current Population Reports, Farm Population, Series Census-ERS, P-27, No. 44, June 1973, p. 1.

Source: 1970 Census of Population. Developed in ERS, 1/24/74.

Figure 1 shows population growth, 1960-1970, within the metropolitan-non-metropolitan classifications. Fringe areas of large metro areas grew most rapidly with a gain of 35.5 percent. Medium and small metro areas gained by 17.5 and 15.4 percent respectively while urbanized non-metro near an SMSA gained 12.3 percent. Rural and small city areas near a standard metropolitan statistical area (SMSA) gained only 4.0 percent. The same areas not near an SMSA lost slightly 0.5 percent, and all rural not near an SMSA lost some 4.4 percent.

Appendix A includes a series of charts comparing metro and non-metro areas with some breakdown by size of place within each category.

Emerging Concepts of Community and Multi-County Regions

Powerful social and economic factors - the industrial, urban and bureaucratic revolutions of the twentieth century alluded to in the first sections of this paper - have altered the nature of social and economic activity and its distribution over space. Inextricably inter-related with these forces and the distribution of social and economic activity are changing life styles of people over the country. While there is great diversity in the life styles three major effects, among others, are evident: a wider life space for individuals, a wider choice of living environments, and a wider community of interests. These factors need to be taken into account in dealing with the concepts of community and multi-county regions.

Wider Life Space

An individual's effective life space includes all the geographic areas within which his life is lived, and within which he secures the

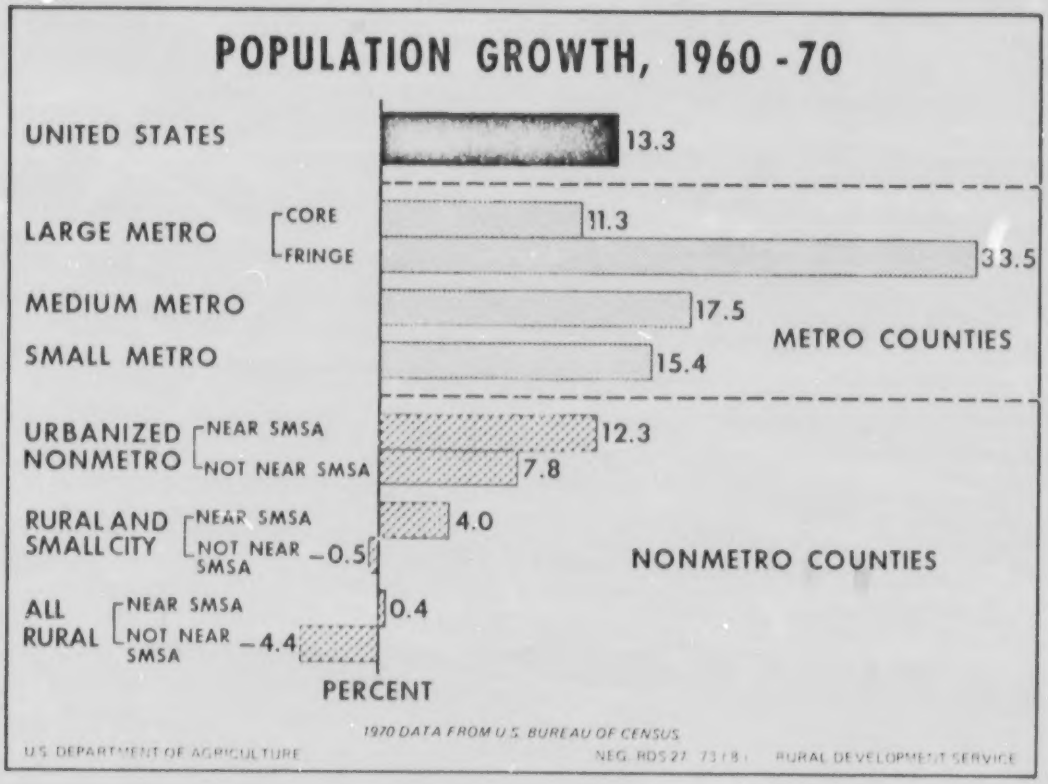
POPULATION GROWTH, 1960 - 70
UNITED STATES
13.3
LARGE METRO
CORE
FRINGE
11.3
33.5
MEDIUM METRO
17.5
SMALL METRO
15.4
METRO COUNTIES
URBANIZED NONMETRO
NEAR SMSA
NOT NEAR SMSA
12.3
7.8
RURAL AND SMALL CITY
NEAR SMSA
NOT NEAR SMSA
4.0
-0.5
NONMETRO COUNTIES
ALL RURAL
NEAR SMSA
NOT NEAR SMSA
0.4
-4.4
PERCENT
1970 DATA FROM U.S. BUREAU OF CENSUS
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 27 73 (8) - RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

Fig.1

goods and services he uses. It includes his home and its immediate area, his place of work and the places in which he obtains his elementary and secondary education, does his shopping, participates in government, pays his local taxes, and attends church. It also includes the more distant places he travels to for business and recreation, the places he visits to see his friends and relatives, and the connecting routes over which he travels.

A map of these life spaces is different for individuals and families depending on income, sex, age, and other socioeconomic factors. Such maps of the way life is now lived give a more accurate view of reality than traditional descriptions of community. Changes now in process--communication, transportation, increased income, shorter work weeks--will likely encourage dispersion and a further thinning out of population in metropolitan core areas. New patterns of location and mobility are now established. These will be accentuated in the future, affected by the concern for quality of life and protection for the environment.

A Wider Choice of Living Environments

A wider choice is emerging which ranges from central metropolitan cores, towns of different sizes, and varied open spaces. Within this great range of choice, a variety of living environments has been created. There is nothing rigid or predetermined about what is emerging. It will likely take the form of a mosaic of different neighborhoods or communities--micro-environments--which will coexist within a common macro-environment.

For the individual family, the future offers a far greater choice of living environments than do the old metropolitan areas or rural areas.

Alternatives include country and in-town living, perhaps combined, through a sharp increase in the frequency of second homes for year-round use; single family dwellings and apartment towers; dense metropolitan clusters and open countryside; new towns and towns with an historical tradition; and functionally specialized communities.

There will likely be a wider and easier exchange among all parts of these new "communities" or residential concentrations. This will be encouraged by a wider distribution of population and by larger amounts of time available for leisure.

Wider Community of Interests

Increases in the effective life space of individuals and families will likely lead to each person's having greater interest in and identification with a larger area. He will likely be interested in and participate in a number of spatially defined communities. His purely local interests will be moderated by his wider interests and, in turn, his wider interests by his more local interests. There will probably be a continuation of the established trends toward a cosmopolitanization of values, attitudes, and behavior. There will be the possibility of strengthening participation in policy decisions with increasingly effective professional administration of agencies carrying our decisions.

These three factors then--wider life space, wider choice in living environments, and wider community of interests--are one way of summarizing what is happening.

Some Major Impediments in Development

Some view the drastic changes that have occurred as declines and losses of what has existed in the past. These losses have been covered in

many papers and need not be repeated here. Important as they are, they are of little help in devising alternatives to our present predicament.

Another approach is to recognize that something new is emerging and to determine what alternatives we may have in building new communities and new educational institutions which respond to the conditions of the present and the future, and which meet our demands for quality in living.

Careful analysis of the inherent difficulties of communities and multi-county areas suggest five basic impediments to development:

1. Inability of firms to provide jobs. Inability of organizations and institutions to deliver the kinds and quality of services that meet the needs of people they serve or might serve.
2. Failure to achieve a size and scale of units appropriate for delivery of social, economic, and governmental services at reasonable costs; for building and maintaining high citizen-consumer involvement; and for accumulating the resources needed to provide quality services.
3. Inability to link and integrate mechanisms among organizations, services, and political units from the local to the national level in both the public and private sectors.
4. Failure to include many individuals; especially the poor, minorities, women, the aging and the youth whose interests have not been adequately represented in communities and in the public and private services.

5. Inability to give citizens, units of government, and local to national organizations at all levels effective ways to define and clarify policy issues.

These seem to be some of the major issues with which communities, local units of government, and multi-county planning districts must deal. It is not the purpose of this paper to catalog and evaluate various concepts of community and multi-county districts. These are available from other sources (Moe: 1973 and ACIR: 1973, Vols, 1 and 2). It is our purpose to identify issues and conditions, both present and future, which must be taken into account.

The life space of individuals as discussed above is basic in any concept of community. Life space together with present and future distribution of social and economic activity is a basic consideration in setting up multi-county districts. It is evident that an appropriately constituted multi-county district will approximate the "community" conceived as the life space of individuals. There are strong evidences of convergence of these ideas. This is in fact, what we as a society attempted to do in establishing multi-county districts.

Observations of State attempts to establish planning and development districts seem to support two significant conclusions. To the extent that public officials, planners, program specialists, and citizens of the constituent units in a district see the district as a mechanism for cooperative solving of problems they cannot solve individually, districts seem to have gained solid local acceptance. On the other hand, to the extent that a district is seen as an administrative unit imposed from State or Federal levels, some basic questions have been raised which have not been answered to the satisfaction of local people.

Some serious mistakes have been made in initiating districts that will plague what is a somewhat more rational approach in amelioriating or solving local problems. The convergence between community as life space and multi-county district as the "larger community" remains the most promising direction in which to move.

Changing Concepts of Development and Rural Development

The concept of development has been touched upon throughout this paper. However it may be defined, the term is used to connote improvements or gains for individuals, communities, or other units on some important variables such as capacity to perform social functions or roles, income, education, enlightenment, dignity, political effectiveness or freedom. It also implies more or less orderly movement toward some projected future state defined to be desirable; such as maturity or dignity for individuals or self-sustained economic growth or quality of life in communities or other political and social units. Difficulties arise in assessing whether development occurs where there are gains on some internal and external indices and losses on others. Development is a normative concept and part of the difficulty in working with it is a basic reluctance to deal with normative ideas.

In 1971 one of the writers had the experience of discussing in some depth with a wide range of Cornell University faculty members and graduate students the differentiating ideas in development (Moe: 1971). There was great variety and spread in the essential ideas thought to be inherent in the concept growing out of wide differences in disciplinary and experience backgrounds. A number of major emphases emerged. These emphases, together with conditions with which development is confused,

provide a useful way of clarifying this elusive concept.

Some faculty members talked of development in terms of "goal directed-goal oriented change", or "preferred states or levels to be attained", or "sets of conditions, internal and external, characterizing development." Others talked of the capacity of individuals and systems as the differentiating idea--capacity to use resources; capacity to perform social roles and functions; capacity to achieve and maintain a high level of productivity; or to achieve and sustain personal and social effectiveness. Quality of life was seen by many as the central idea, but this phrase was admittedly of limited use because of its varying interpretations. A high level of differentiation in roles and functions of individuals and in other social units was another basic differentiating idea. Some other faculty members saw the number of options open to individuals as the key notion for them. And finally, some saw the sustained producing of a surplus of products and/or skills as the major differentiating aspect of development. These ideas are described in some detail in the paper cited above.

Perhaps the most neglected aspects of development are the implications it holds for human freedom. Warwick in his paper on "Human Freedom and National Development" cited above defines freedom as the "capacity, the opportunity and the incentive to develop and express one's potentials" (Warwick: 1968, pp. 498-499). Development may be analyzed in terms of the extent to which it enhances or restrains freedom in its specific environmental, dispositional, and developmental aspects. Environmental freedom in this sense is the absence of external restraints imposed on individual action by such factors as culture,

social structure, and the exercise of physical force. Dispositional freedom is internal liberty provided by one's perspective and one's personality and behavorial patterns. In a positive sense, it is the capacity and willingness to risk and to change. In a negative sense, it is the absence of excessive fear and reliance on inappropriate defense mechanisms. Developmental freedom may be viewed as the capacity and motivation to express one's potentialities at each stage in the life cycle. It is dynamic, continuing personal growth supported by environmental and dispositional freedoms. It is self-directing and self-renewing over all the stages of one's life. What happens to the freedom aspects of development may be both the greatest achievement and the most severe challenge to our system.

The experienced Cornell development specialists recognized the enormous confusion over what development is or is not. A high proportion of them thought the major confusion was with growth per se. They cited the overdependence on narrow aggregated quantitative measures such as gross national product, and on the equating of ends with means and calling technology, structure, presence of institutional forms and processes as development. The imposition of values, moralistic speculation and high external manipulation including high profiles for helping persons, agencies or nations were seen as other aspects of the problem. However much development may be stimulated by external factors, it is essentially an internal change in individuals and systems. It is a rearrangement of inputs as well as outputs. And there was clearly the failure to see and/or anticipate second generation difficulties as destroying some significant initial gains. As one person put it, "We didn't know what development was, but we thought it was a good thing."

These confusions and others have characterized development. The process is so involving, so inclusive, so far reaching that major confusion is more or less inevitable. The confusion of agricultural development with rural development was discussed in Section III of this paper. This confusion, also, has had many unfortunate consequences.

For purposes of the current research effort in rural development under Title V of the Rural Development Act of 1972, this simple definition is used: Rural Development is--improving the level and distribution of opportunities among rural people and the processes and procedures for achieving this objective.

It is further defined in operational terms as the planning, organizing, financing, implementing and/or delivering, and evaluating of activities to improve:

1. Employment, income, investments, wealth;
2. Services and facilities such as education, health and medical care, employment services, manpower development and training, recreation, religious services;
3. Use, conservation, and protection of land, water, air, and other natural resources, and the abatement of pollution;
4. The capacity of people, their institutions and total systems to achieve and sustain improvements in the level and distribution of opportunities.

This definition is consistent with the intent and specific provisions of the Rural Development Act of 1972.

A Way of Conceptualizing Development

A simple framework for thinking about development and for analyzing development programs has emerged out of past and present work. Development programs or efforts may be analyzed in these terms:

1. Clarification of what development is defined to be in specific terms. What is supposed to occur? What are the goals or the desired states to be attained?
2. Identification of the units within which it is to occur. Are they changes in individual school systems, communities, multi-county units, or some other units, or are they changes to be made concurrently in several units and the interrelationships among units?
3. Processes and strategies by which development is to be attained. These again need to be defined in very specific terms and examined as to their appropriateness for attainment of the ends specified.
4. Internal and external measures by which development is to be gauged or evaluated. Again great clarity and specificity are required.

Development, while difficult to attain, is an intriguing idea in human society. Life and events do not have a flow in linear fashion from past to present to future. We have been successful in making projections of what conditions will be like five, ten, and fifteen years into the

future. Building on such projections, development presents the opportunity to go beyond projections to more precise descriptions of what we would like to see exist, or what the alternatives might be in terms of some desired future states. If we are clear about the ends, it is likely we can devise the policies and the strategies to achieve the ends. At least we will know more clearly what we are about, and the magnitude of the task we confront in development. To the extent that we do this we can come into the present from the future as well as from the past.

## VI. CONTRIBUTIONS OF SCHOOLS TO DEVELOPMENT IN THE PAST

Over the years rural schools have been significant factors in the stabilization and development of rural communities. In many cases the school is the largest enterprise, the major employer, the central public facility, and the show place of the community. One of the basic, haunting fears in school district consolidation has been that if a community loses its school, it will inevitably decline. On the positive side, a good school is high on the list of factors considered by industrial and other enterprises in seeking new locations. Before identifying specific contributions of schools to development, it is appropriate to examine briefly some of the innovative and exemplary programs in rural schools. It is such programs which make communities better places in which to live, and tend to support development efforts.

The following examples illustrate the diversity and scope of these "Lighthouse" programs.

Although many school administrators consider the time students spend on buses getting to and from school as being "non-productive", the officials of the Gunnison Watershed School District (Colorado) have demonstrated that the traveling time of students can be utilized in a most constructive manner.

This school district, encompassing some 3,200 square miles, enrolls approximately 1,500 students, many of whom spend 40 hours or more each month riding the school bus to and from school. To meet this challenge one of the regular school buses has been redesigned as a learning center through the use of electronic equipment, including a

seven channel audiotape-deck complete with individual head sets. Thus, each student can control the volume and is able to select any of the seven channels. Three of the seven channels are reserved for differing age groups, one is utilized exclusively by AM radio programs, and the three remaining channels are reserved for special independent study. Each student receives a weekly "Listening Guide" listing the programs for the week. In addition to tapes designed for supplementary and environment activities, tapes of appropriate special events at the school or in the community are broadcast.

The Appalachia Educational Laboratory has developed and field tested a home-oriented program for pre-school education of three, four, and five year olds living in sparsely settled areas. The program is designed around a daily television lesson which is beamed by a commercial station and viewed by the child and parent at home. On a weekly schedule a para-professional visits the child's home to counsel with the mother as well as bringing materials for the following week's program. Once each week, group instruction is provided in a mobile classroom which is located near the child's home. The cost of this program is estimated to be only 50 percent of the conventional kindergarten program.

An ingenious program has been designed by three widely separated school districts in Southern California: San Bernardino, Inyo, and Mano. They have a shared service program in art. Since many, if not most, of the children residing in these rural areas have never seen works of art, let alone been taught to draw and use art materials, the school districts jointly converted a school bus into a museum on wheels. Personnel from Southern California art museums, colleges, and universities,

and local civic and cultural organizations provide expertise, advice, and assistance to this project.

Very similar in purpose, with another component, is the "Project Mid-Tennessee." This children's museum, dubbed the "Yellow Submarine" by the children, is a large tractor trailer which brings various educational exhibits to the rural students on a rotating basis.

In addition, the lives of these students have been enriched through visits of the Nashville Symphony. Prior to the visits, pre-concert materials are provided to the classroom teachers; after the concert, informal conferences between musicians and students are held. Provision is made for music clinics as a follow-up activity. These clinics, designed to generate local interest in continuing musical programs, are conducted by orchestra members for musicians of the area.

Numerous small rural school districts have banded together, forming Regional Educational Cooperatives. Through this mechanism small rural schools can share staff and resources in order to supply high quality education at a reasonable cost.

One such center is the bi-state venture serving 100 small school districts in 17 counties of North Dakota and Minnesota. This "Upper Red River Valley Educational Service Center" is located in Grand Forks, North Dakota. Services of this center include providing psychological testing, diagnosis, and counseling and guidance services; assisting schools to develop and implement high quality in-service programs for teachers; providing programs of cultural enrichment to the schools and their communities; and acting as a catalytic agent and resource agency in

promoting and developing curricula and instructional improvement for its constituent members.

We have barely scratched the surface of current "Lighthouse" programs designed to serve rural young people better. The foregoing examples do illustrate that there are many exciting and unique happenings on the rural education scene that bode well for the future.

Some Specific Contributions

Schools have traditionally been at the forefront in meeting social needs, particularly for those in the mainstream or aspiring to be in the mainstream of American life. Their contributions to communities and to development of communities are not generally recognized. It is difficult for a community to arrive at some reasonable estimate of the "value" of its school, and the contributions it makes to the community.

Some of the more important contributions of schools to development are: they have been the training centers supplying education for people of all ages to meet their own needs and the needs of communities; they continually enhance the leadership resources of the community, and thereby enable the community to ameliorate or solve problems. Schools serve as catalytic agents and help create a climate for change within the school itself as well as within the community.

Schools have served as forums for community participation on educational issues as well as on major economic and social issues facing the community. Schools provide the link to outside resources and influences. Today's administrators and teachers are better educated, more widely travelled than they have ever been. How natural then for them to bring new insights, fresh ideas and perspective to rural

communities, to adults and to the young people. Through their focus on youth and a strong orientation as to what society might be, schools contribute greatly to what individuals can be and to the development of communities and the nation. In this sense the concerns about development and freedom discussed above come into focus. The schools' contributions, particularly to dispositional and developmental freedom, may well be their greatest contribution. Schools can become even more significant factors in development in the future. The teachers coupled with the school's supervising staff, as community change agents, comprise a resource which has been only partially used.

In many communities the educational enterprise is the largest economic asset: it is the largest single employer, it is the largest consumer of material and energy.

The school buildings as well as other facilities support community activities, programs, and services. In many instances the school has the only auditorium, and provides a variety of other resources that strengthen community life.

Schools serve as a natural conduit for two way communication in two senses: school to community and community to school and school-community to outside resources. This access to resource specialists in public and private agencies, and in universities is a significant contribution. Again, it is one that could be more effectively used.

Schools have been a major factor in the past in promoting the development of the nation. To meet the challenges of the '70's and beyond schools will be a more significant influence in strengthening the development efforts of communities.

## VII. SOME IMPEDIMENTS TO THE SCHOOL AS A MECHANISM FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Although our schools have made significant contributions to development of communities and the nation, they have helped to create some impediments which may hinder their optimum utilization in rural development.

Often the school becomes isolated from the community. All too often the school leadership is seen as standing for the status quo, for things as they used to be, or for changes which seem to make no sense to the community. Part of this is due to the failure of school administrators to significantly involve the community in the educational decision making process. Often when it is alleged that the community is actively involved in decision making, close examination finds that the community leadership was coopted for particular school purposes, or the community was manipulated for school purposes.

Part of the mistrust and lack of meaningful involvement stems from a confusion over the roles and functions of the school. "Is the school designed solely to perpetuate the past?" "Is it a leader or a follower?" "Should it be community centered and responsible to the community?" Unfortunately there is little agreement on the right answer to questions such as these; the absence of agreement then adds to the confusion.

This alienation is also felt by many of the students. They conclude that education (at least what is offered to them as education) is irrelevant to their needs, goals and desires. This being "left out"

accounts in large measure for the statistic that 14 percent of rural youth 16 and 17 are not attending school.

Not only is there confusion over the roles of the school and its community, but there is a breakdown in communication between schools in a school district, and the educational support agencies at regional, state and national levels. Add to this, the role and function of the R&D centers, Regional Labs, and other educational support agencies, and the picture becomes unclear indeed.

Another impediment is the inability of the school and school leadership, professional and board, to deal adequately with the development problems of the school, and to demonstrate competence in helping the community deal with its development problems.

Many times there exists a lack of trust in the school leadership. One of the ways this can be documented is by taking note of the defeat of more and more school bond or millage elections. Other indices would be the rising number of teacher strikes, and the number of lawsuits against school policies.

Other major impediments are conceptual models for development of schools which have tended to work exclusively on the school and have failed to recognize the importance of simultaneous attempts at development in inter-related systems. These inter-related systems include the following: (1) students and their relationship to the school and the learning environment as they see it; (2) the community; (3) the family; and (4) local regional, state, and national support agencies in education. There are still too many attempts to improve education by working on the school as if it were unrelated to these other systems, and unaffected by them.

A first step in removing these impediments to the school as a mechanism for rural development is to recognize their existence. Once they are recognized a strategy can be devised to neutralize them or to channel them into positive forces for change.

## VIII. FUNCTIONS SCHOOLS MIGHT PERFORM AS A MECHANISM FOR DEVELOPMENT

Throughout this paper we have explicitly pointed up the reciprocal relationships between efforts to improve the school and efforts to develop the community or the area in which the school is located. We have explicitly identified the kinds of reciprocal relationships that ought to be built into R&D systems for rural education and rural areas. Contributions of schools to the development of communities and some of the impediments or blocks to schools as mechanisms in development have been identified. Attention can now be directed to functions rural schools might perform as a mechanism for development. These are listed with a brief explanation of the function, and what it would require of the school.

Strengthen and Build Upon Past School Functions

Strengthen and build upon such school functions as: serving as a training center for the community, being a catalyst for change, providing a focus on youth and their needs, serving as a forum for the community on school and community issues, linking the community to outside resources, providing active and/or potential agents of change. Other such functions are listed in Section VI.

The school should inform the community on the performance of these functions. They should be interpreted in an explicit development sense, and related to on-going development activities in the community or area.

Furthermore the school should plan deliberate ways to overcome the blocks and impediments to its serving in a larger developmental

role. It should counter or neutralize the idea that the school manipulates the community for the school's ends.

Relate School Programs to Development Efforts in the Community Area

Administrators, faculty and students should be knowledgeable about development activities and should specifically plan ways in which they can participate. Involvement in simple research tasks, such as collecting and analyzing data, could both serve the community and be a significant learning experience.

All schools, and particularly rural schools, need strong integrated programs in career development. Such programs could be related to the nature of the economy of the area and the number and diversity of work opportunities as they are now and as they are likely to be in the future. Possible effects of rural development programs could be identified. Problems of career selection based on a student's desires concerning life style, income, educational, occupational, and residential preferences could be taken into account with greater realism. His aspirations as to the type of family life could be taken into account also.

Strong career education programs sensitize students to the world of work, and help them make choices about life styles and occupations. Such programs have much to contribute and much to gain from attempts to develop rural areas. More of the basic questions are asked, at least.

Provide Leadership and Competence to Deal with Development Within School and Community

Administrators and faculty members would need to be somewhat knowledgeable about development and development processes, and know

where to get help. Through such leadership the reciprocal gains for schools and the community could be appropriately highlighted.

Help Create a Climate for Recognition and Resolution of Issues in Development

This function could be a significant extension of the catalyst role mentioned above. Acting in such a role could substantially strengthen school - community relationships and help people in the community see the school as a mechanism in solving non-educational problems.

Become a Knowledge and Resource Center for Development

Materials on the development of rural schools and rural communities could become important parts of the school library and made available to citizens and public officials. Lists of such materials could be published in local papers, and circulated among community leaders.

Such materials could enrich the education experience provided by the school, and could help inform students so they could participate knowledgeably and effectively in development activities in the community.

Legislation and committee reports on rural education and development could be used in school programs, and made available to the community. People could be helped to see what is happening across the country and could interpret what they are doing locally in light of what is happening elsewhere. More perspective could be gained on the problems of rural areas, and some of the alternatives which are being tried. How best to serve as a knowledge and information center could be planned and implemented with the cooperation of major public and private agencies in development in the area served by the school.

Lecture and discussion series could be held involving public officials, representatives of State and Federal agencies and university specialists interested in development. Schools could provide a home base and facilities for development efforts in the community or area.

Involve Students and Help Them Contribute Effectively

School projects could be built around the future of the community and what it will be like five, ten, fifteen years from now. Basic resource materials could be used. Projections as to population, total employment, employment in agriculture, location of services and other significant factors could be explored. Planning projects could be designed through which students would examine alternatives and make suggestions as to what action they would like to see taken by the school and the community. Such projects could involve adults and be worked out in cooperation with public officials. Public officials and representatives of public and private agencies in the community might critique student plans. Student plans including maps, pictures, drawings could be made part of a collection in the school library.

Serve as Training Center

Schools could help strengthen leadership resources for development programs. This could be done in cooperation with the Extension Service or other adult educational agencies, including development groups in community colleges and other colleges and universities. Adult educational offerings on development problems and issues confronting schools and communities could be strengthened.

Help Secure Unavailable Resources

This would involve building and maintaining relationships with institutions of higher education, State and Federal agencies,

particularly those interested in development, and other public and private agencies.

Establish and Maintain Continuing Educational Development within the School System

Such a program would relate specifically to development activities in the community. It could involve administrators, faculty, students, board members, public officials, and citizens, and would enhance the problem solving capacity of the school to deal with educational issues.

The demonstrated capacity to deal with school-community issues could be utilized in dealing with development issues in the community and the larger rural areas.

Help Design and Maintain Research and Development System

This system with ties to regional, state and national R&D could continually improve the functioning of the community and its institutions with particular attention to the school. Rural schools and rural communities in most cases have not been served effectively by present R&D efforts. Rapid improvements are likely to be made in such systems both for schools and for communities. School administrators and faculties can help relate the community to these emerging systems with great benefit to the community and the school.

These are some of the ways in which schools can play a more important role in both rural development and in the continuing improvement of rural education.

## IX. SOME SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS ON STRENGTHENING RURAL SCHOOLS AS A MECHANISM FOR DEVELOPMENT

It is imperative that a National Policy for Rural Education be enunciated. This policy should recognize the following: that rural America does exist; that it has serious problems; that its problems can and must be solved; and that the Federal Government must take more responsibility for leadership. The national policy for rural education would support and in turn be supported by a stronger policy for rural development. The reciprocal relationships between rural areas and rural institutions such as rural education would be explicitly recognized.

Following the issuing of the POLICY STATEMENT, steps should be taken which will implement the recommendations of the U.S. Office of Education's "Task Force Report on Rural Education" (Field Paper 42: 1971). The primary recommendations of the Task Force are these:

(a) Establish a rural unit in the United States Office of education.

(b) Develop and adequately fund a National Center for Rural Education.

(c) Establish one or more model rural schools.

(d) Induce the several States to take appropriate action re: rural education.

(e) Provide incentive funds to teachers in rural areas.

(f) Provide incentive funds for shared services.

(g) Provide funds to support interstate councils or commissions.

The functions of the rural unit would include the following:

(1) To collect and disseminate information pertaining to developments in health, education and welfare relevant to rural needs; to publicize models which have been successful in providing services to rural populations; and to provide information regarding federally supported programs;

(2) To further the coordination of State, regional and Federal programs which serve rural areas;

(3) To initiate the "packaging" of programs for rural communities, drawing upon funds from various sources;

(4) To provide technical assistance to rural communities in the development and improvement of programs in health, education and welfare through a corps of specialists serving as consultants to State and local as well as to regional agencies in rural areas;

(5) To represent rural interest within and outside the Department; and

(6) To stimulate land-grant and other rural institutions of higher education to conduct long-range research and development activities dealing with rural problems and to provide appropriate extension education to rural communities.

The National Center for Rural Education will conduct research to design programs geared to the needs of rural education in the United States. The center would concern itself with all phases of rural

education and would operate in cooperation with state departments of education, local school systems, colleges and universities and related institutions.

However, the National Government can only do so much and then it is up to the State and local government to "carry-the-ball."

Each State should be encouraged to establish an Office of Rural Educational Programs within its Department of Education. This office would be responsible for the development of mechanisms to deliver education of the highest quality to all rural residents. The educational programs should be designed to reach all ages and circumstances and with a variety of educational goals and objectives. Included would be a comprehensive program designed to provide students with an awareness of what careers are available; the requirements for entry into various occupations; the opportunities for employment and advancement in the various fields; and the chances for initial and continuing demand in the various career areas.

This State office would be expected to relate its educational program to the rural development efforts of the State, its planning and development districts, and to activities under the Rural Development Act of 1972. It is reasonable to expect that educational efforts would dovetail with other programs of rural development.

At both the national and State level, fiscal policy regarding the funding of public education must be changed so that every child, irrespective of residence, will be afforded a good education. Funds must be reallocated so that money follows need. The National Government should use its educational assistance monies to equalize fiscal

resources for education among the several States. These funds should be distributed in an inverse ratio to state personal per capita income with the provision that the States redistribute these funds in such a manner which compensates for intrastate income differences. The suggestion here is that we equalize educational finance with equal educational opportunity.

Many, if not most, of the deficiencies in rural education stem from a combination of problems associated with personal poverty, community isolation, limited public services, lack of leadership, and the concomitant of these factors--insufficient taxable resources to support educational programs and services which are available in other areas in the country.

A number of goals for rural education will be achieved when these suggestions become realities:

(1) Equalization of opportunity, through the extension of education to both pre-school children and adults, and through expanded technical assistance to rural communities by the U. S. Office of Education.

(2) Improved research, experimentation, evaluation and development of new practices - including a new R&D system - initiated through a National Center for Rural Education and through a Rural Unit in the U. S. Office of Education which would stimulate Federal programs pertinent to rural education.

(3) Fiscal reform through the redistribution of funds based on the incidence of poverty and other factors affecting the schools' financial plight.

(4) Increased relevance to educational need and fuller community participation through the modernization of the rural schools' curricula as well as through the development of a closer, more meaningful rapport between the schools and the communities they serve.

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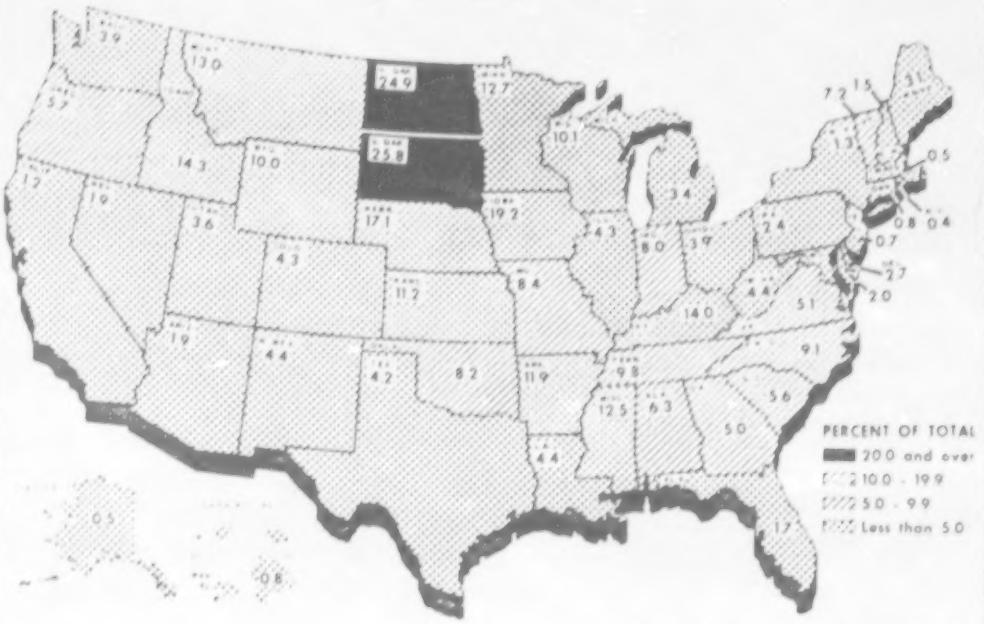
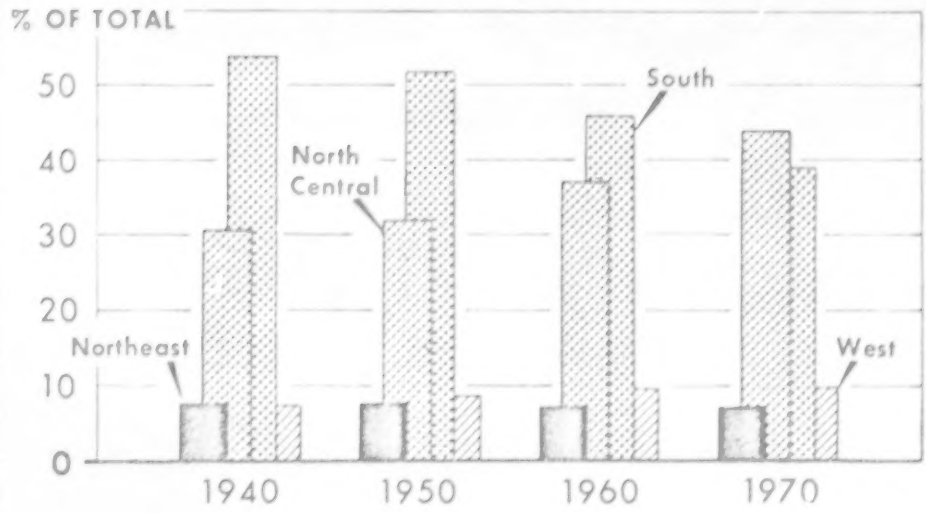
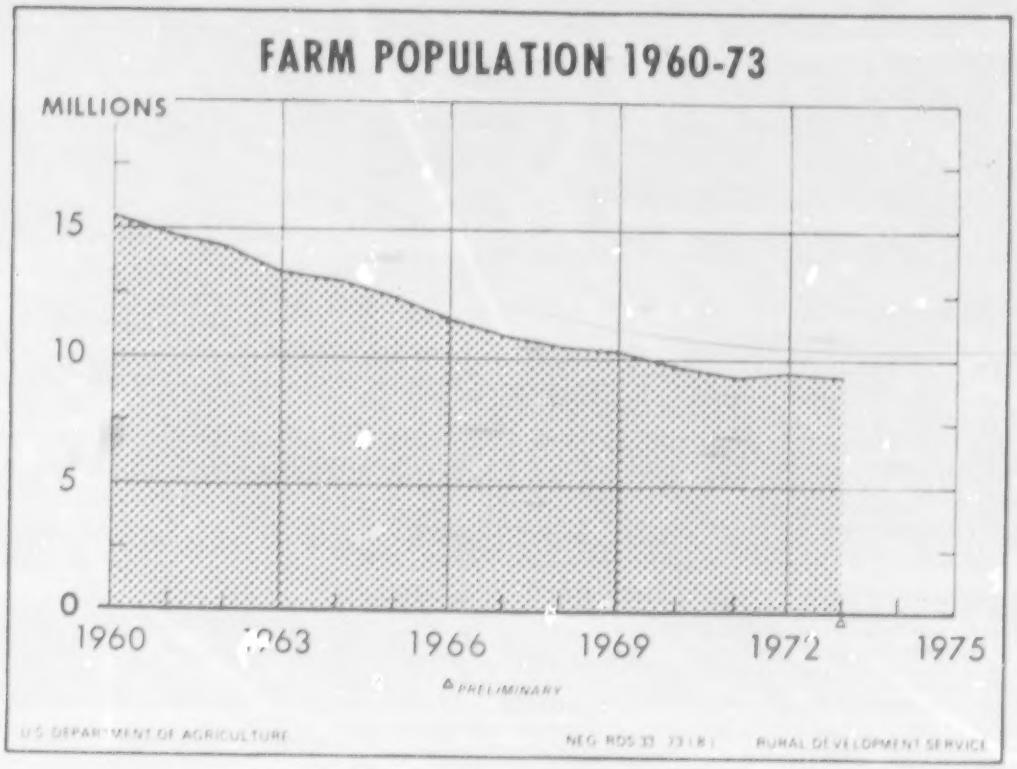
# APPENDIX

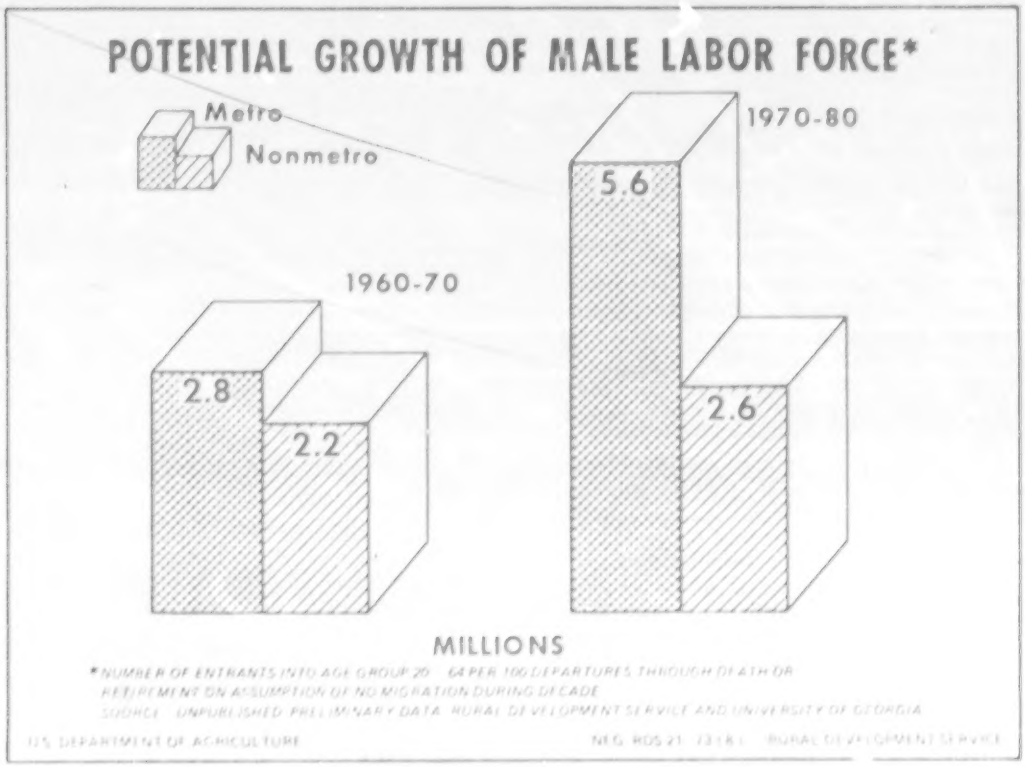
## FARM POPULATION AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL POPULATION BY STATES, 1970




## REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE FARM POPULATION, 1940-70




FARM POPULATION 1960-73
MILLIONS
15
10
5
0
1960
1963
1966
1969
1972
1975
△PRELIMINARY
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 33 73 (8)
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


POTENTIAL GROWTH OF MALE LABOR FORCE*
Metro
Nonmetro
1960-70
2.8
2.2
1970-80
5.6
2.6
MILLIONS
*NUMBER OF ENTRANTS INTO AGE GROUP 20 - 64 PER 100 DEPARTURES THROUGH DEATH OR RETIREMENT ON ASSUMPTION OF NO MIGRATION DURING DECADE
SOURCE: UNPUBLISHED PRELIMINARY DATA, RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE AND UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
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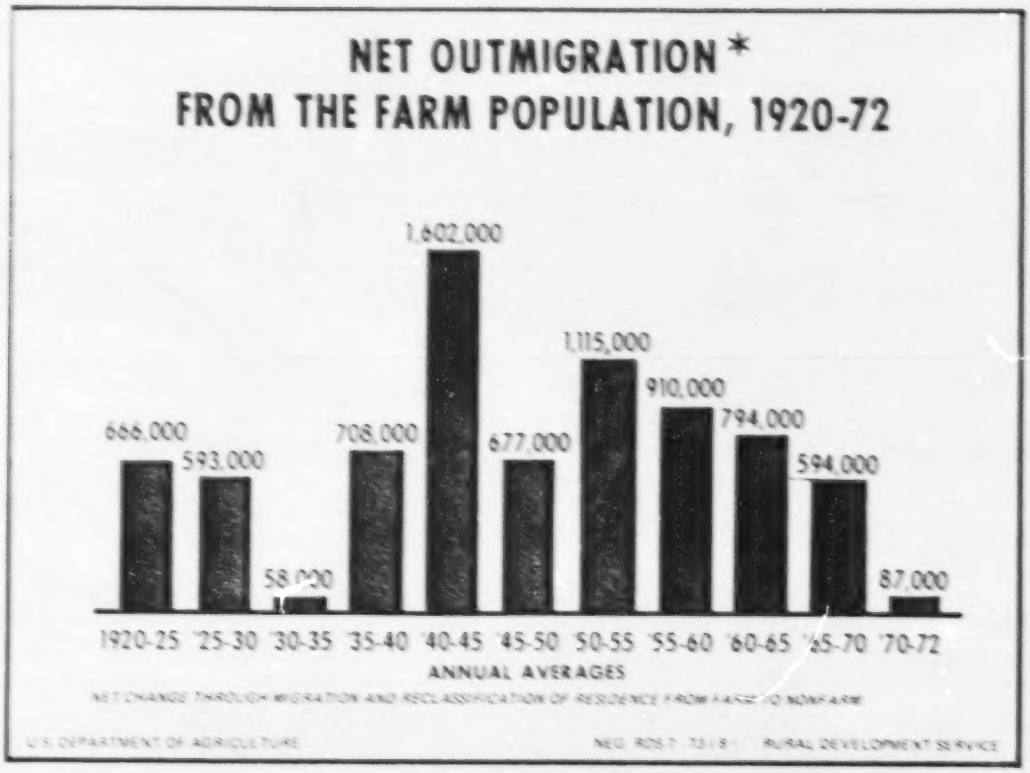
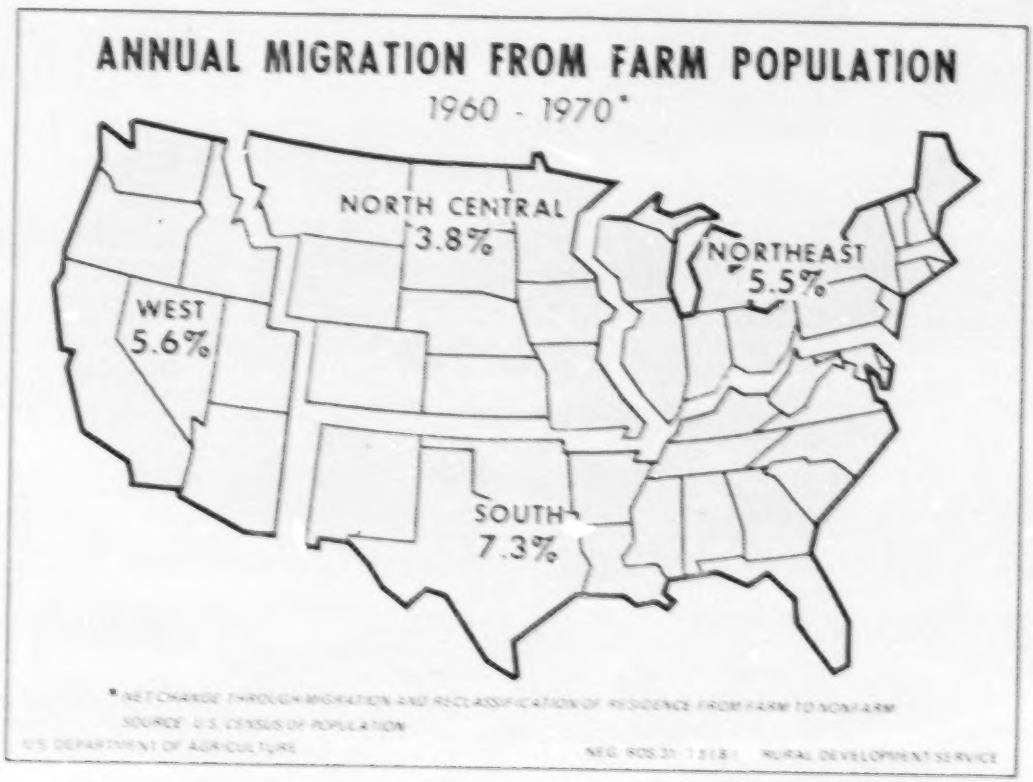
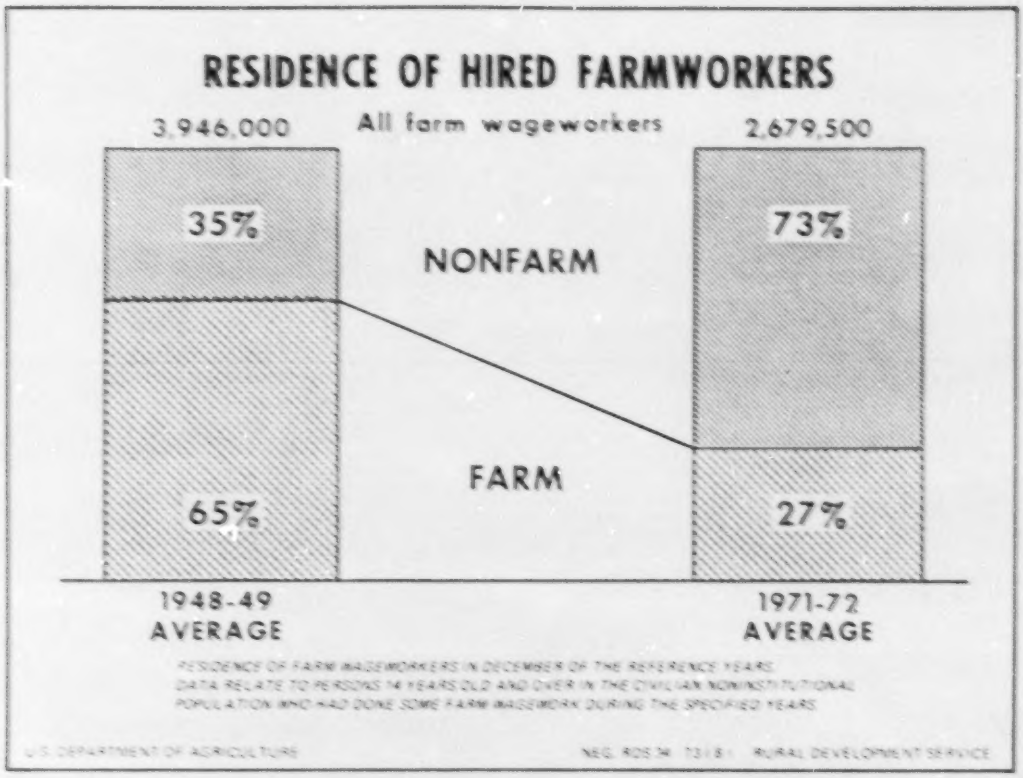
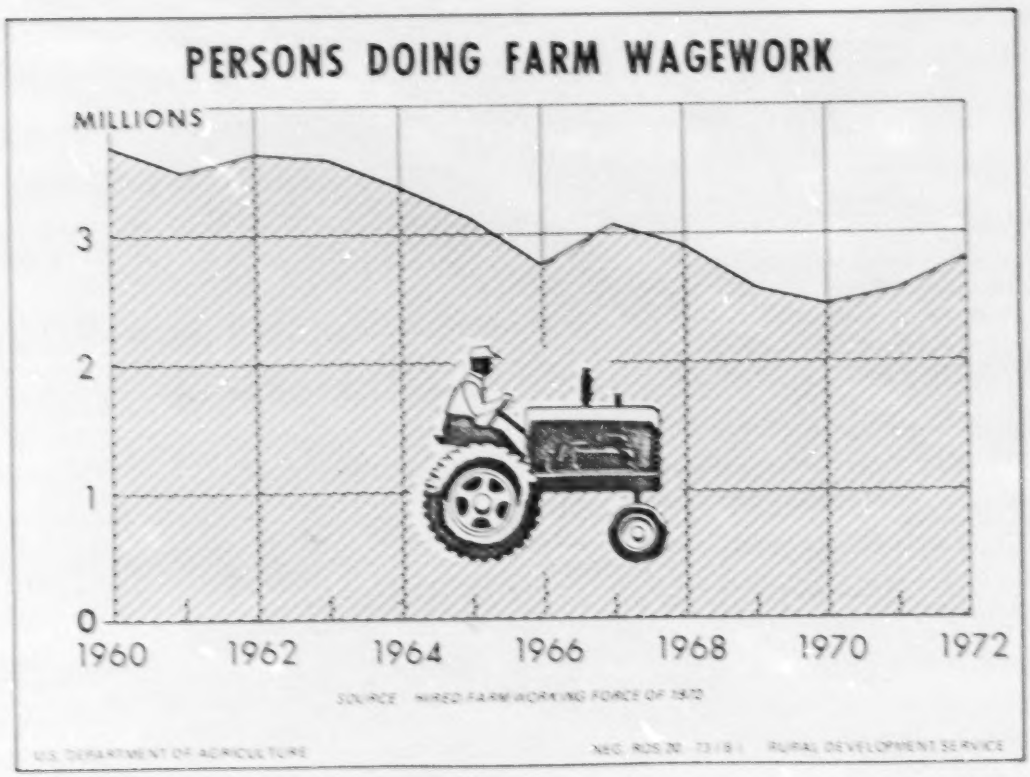
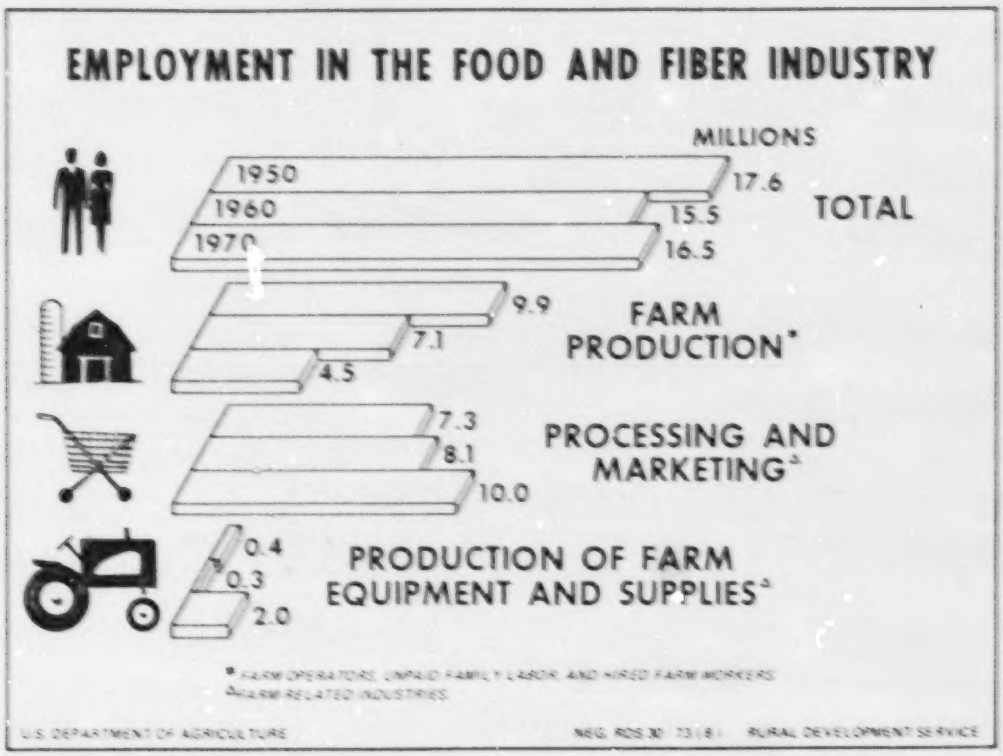
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

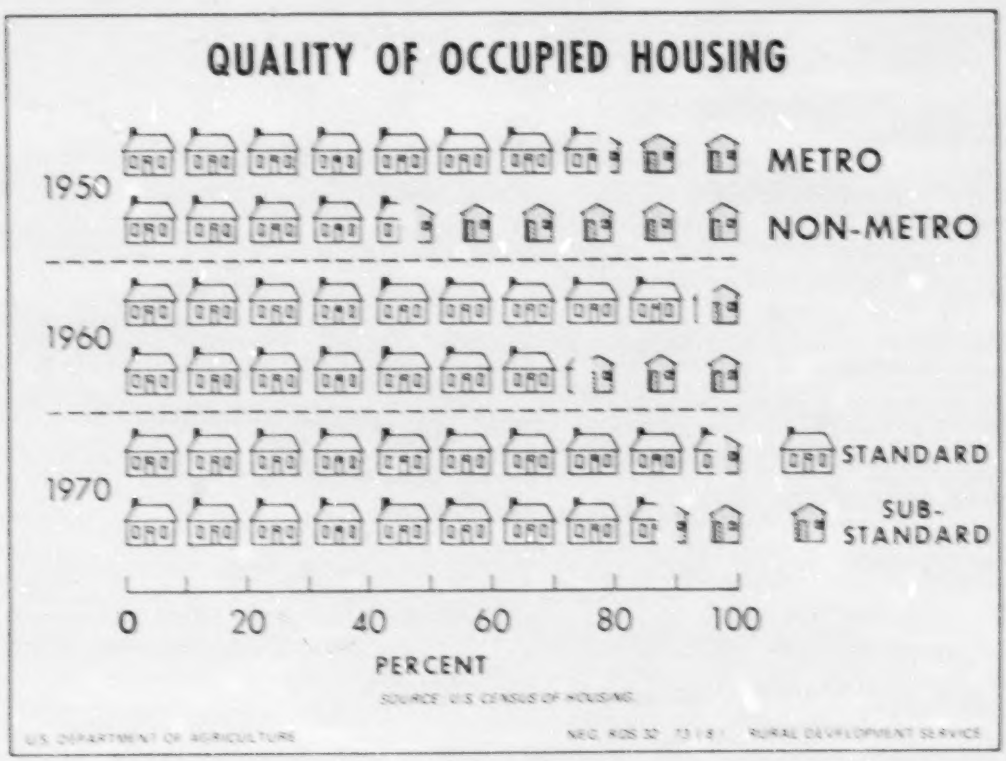

NET OUTMIGRATION *
FROM THE FARM POPULATION, 1920-72
666,000
593,000
58,000
708,000
1,602,000
677,000
1,115,000
910,000
794,000
594,000
87,000
1920-25
'25-30
'30-35
'35-40
'40-45
'45-50
'50-55
'55-60
'60-65
'65-70
'70-72
ANNUAL AVERAGES
* NET CHANGE THROUGH MIGRATION AND RECLASSIFICATION OF RESIDENCE FROM FARM TO NONFARM
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. 805 7 7318 1
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

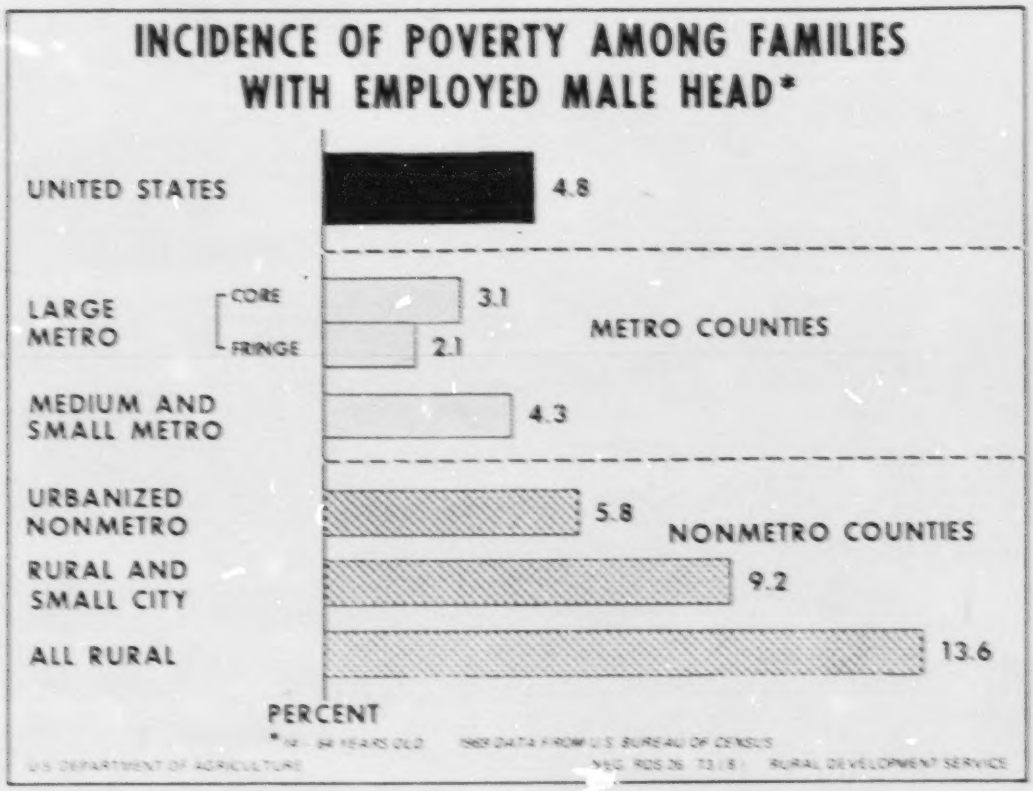

ANNUAL MIGRATION FROM FARM POPULATION
1960 - 1970*
NORTH CENTRAL
3.8%
NORTHEAST
5.5%
WEST
5.6%
SOUTH
7.3%
* NET CHANGE THROUGH MIGRATION AND RECLASSIFICATION OF RESIDENCE FROM FARM TO NONFARM
SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS OF POPULATION
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. 805 31 7318 1
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

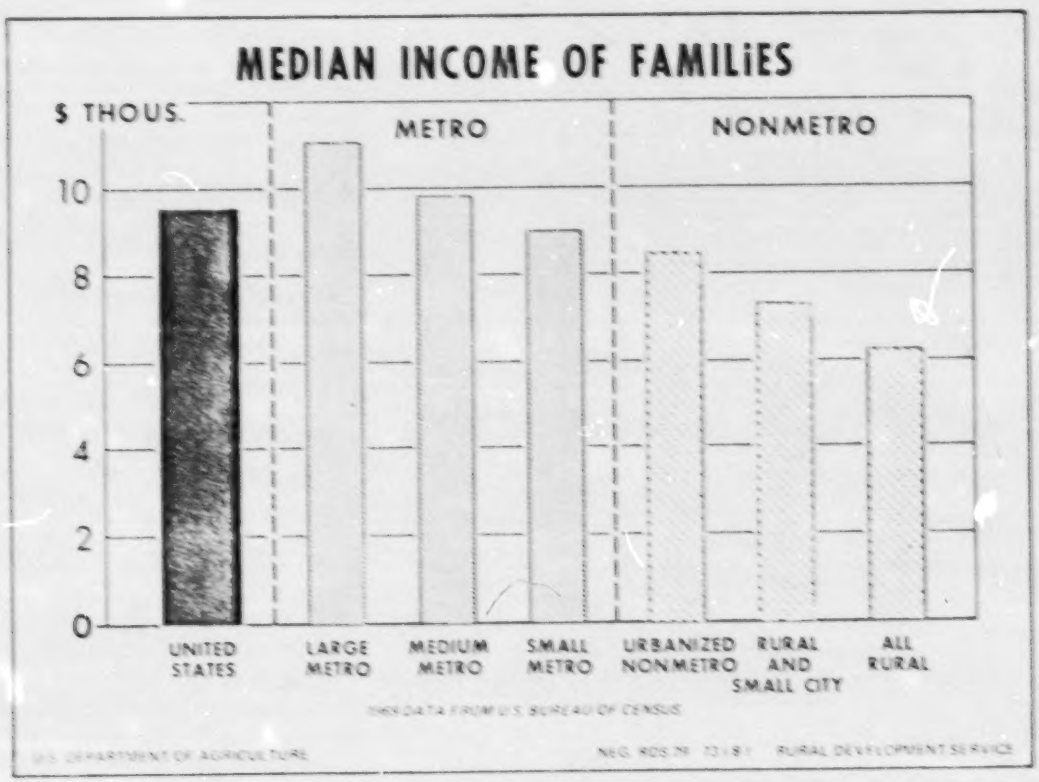

RESIDENCE OF HIRED FARMWORKERS
3,946,000
All farm wageworkers
2,679,500
35%
NONFARM
73%
FARM
65%
27%
1948-49
AVERAGE
1971-72
AVERAGE
RESIDENCE OF FARM WAGEWORKERS IN DECEMBER OF THE REFERENCE YEARS.
DATA RELATE TO PERSONS 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE CIVILIAN NONINSTITUTIONAL
POPULATION WHO HAD DONE SOME FARM WAGEWORK DURING THE SPECIFIED YEARS.
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 74 7318-1 RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

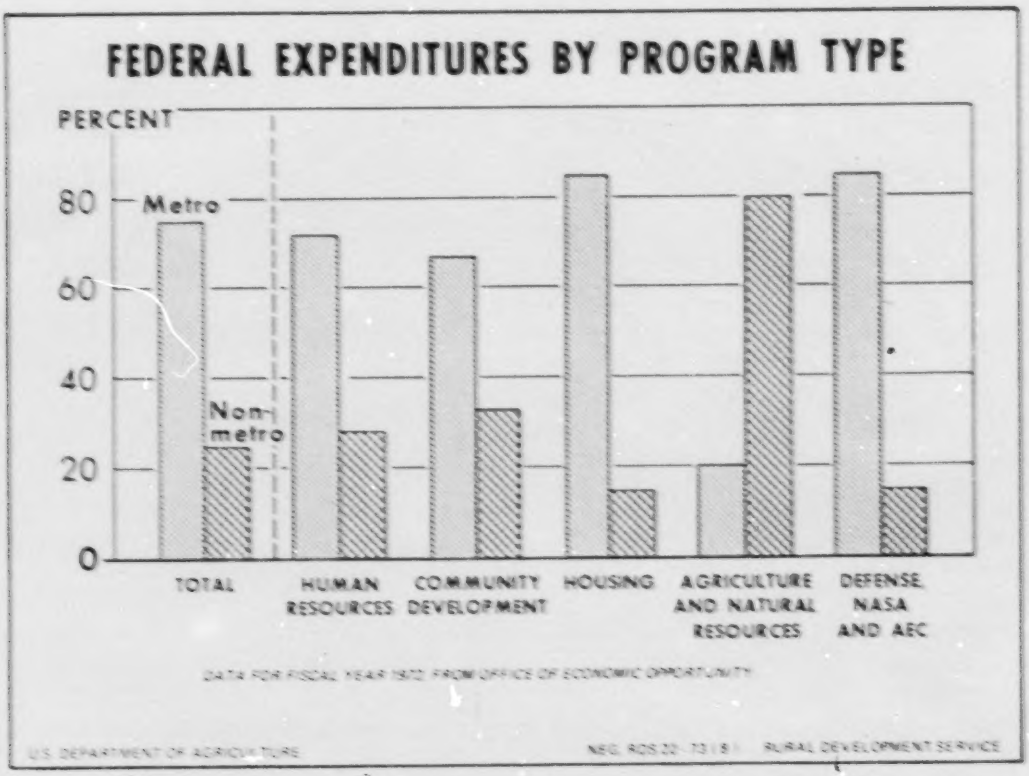

PERSONS DOING FARM WAGEWORK
MILLIONS
3
2
1
0
1960
1962
1964
1966
1968
1970
1972
SOURCE: HIRED FARM WORKING FORCE OF 1970
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 73 7318-1 RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

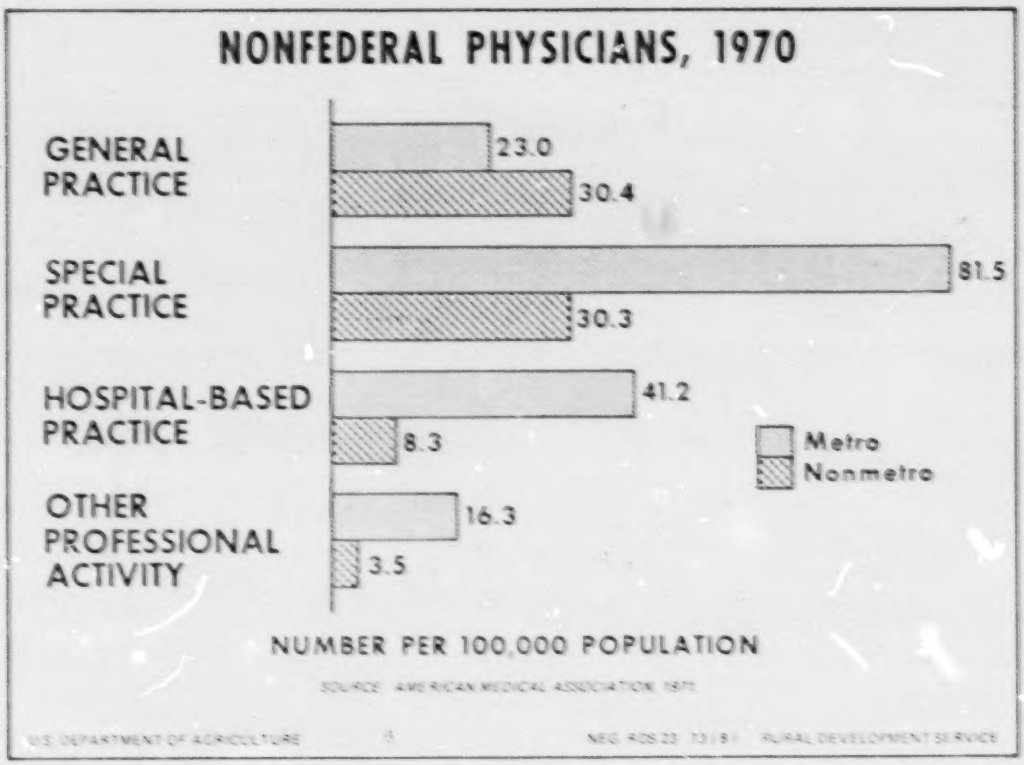

EMPLOYMENT IN THE FOOD AND FIBER INDUSTRY
MILLIONS
1950
1960
1970
17.6
15.5
16.5
TOTAL
9.9
7.1
4.5
FARM PRODUCTION*
7.3
8.1
10.0
PROCESSING AND MARKETING△
0.4
0.3
2.0
PRODUCTION OF FARM EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES△
* FARM OPERATORS, UNPAID FAMILY LABOR, AND HIRED FARM WORKERS.
△FARM RELATED INDUSTRIES.
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 30 13181 RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


QUALITY OF OCCUPIED HOUSING
1950
1960
1970
METRO
NON-METRO
STANDARD
SUB-STANDARD
0
20
40
60
80
100
PERCENT
SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS OF HOUSING.
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 30 13181 RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


INCIDENCE OF POVERTY AMONG FAMILIES WITH EMPLOYED MALE HEAD*
UNITED STATES
4.8
LARGE METRO
CORE
FRINGE
3.1
2.1
METRO COUNTIES
MEDIUM AND SMALL METRO
4.3
URBANIZED NONMETRO
5.8
NONMETRO COUNTIES
RURAL AND SMALL CITY
9.2
ALL RURAL
13.6
PERCENT
* 14 - 64 YEARS OLD
1969 DATA FROM U.S. BUREAU OF CENSUS
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 26 73 81
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


MEDIAN INCOME OF FAMILIES
$ THOUS.
METRO
NONMETRO
10
8
6
4
2
0
UNITED STATES
LARGE METRO
MEDIUM METRO
SMALL METRO
URBANIZED NONMETRO
RURAL AND SMALL CITY
ALL RURAL
1969 DATA FROM U.S. BUREAU OF CENSUS
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 70 73 81
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


FEDERAL EXPENDITURES BY PROGRAM TYPE
PERCENT
80
60
40
20
0
Metro
Non-metro
TOTAL
HUMAN RESOURCES
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
HOUSING
AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES
DEFENSE, NASA AND AEC
DATA FOR FISCAL YEAR 1972 FROM OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS 22-73 (8)
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


NONFEDERAL PHYSICIANS, 1970
GENERAL PRACTICE
23.0
30.4
SPECIAL PRACTICE
81.5
30.3
HOSPITAL-BASED PRACTICE
41.2
8.3
OTHER PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY
16.3
3.5
Metro
Nonmetro
NUMBER PER 100,000 POPULATION
SOURCE: AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION, 1971
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
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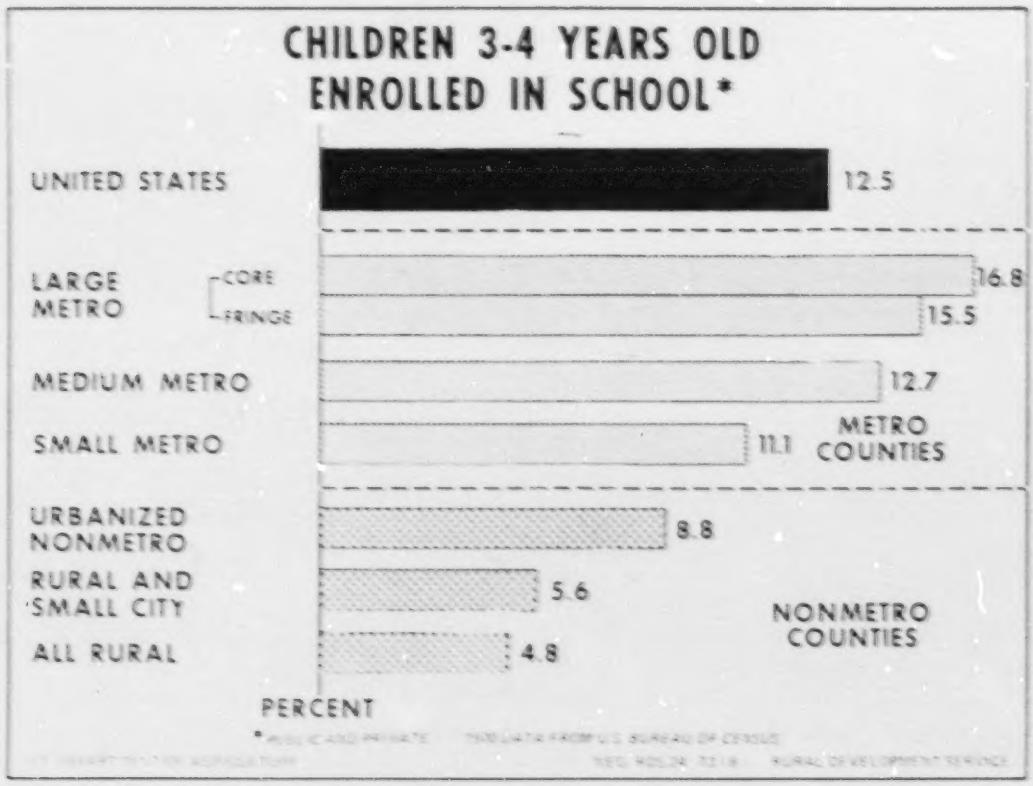
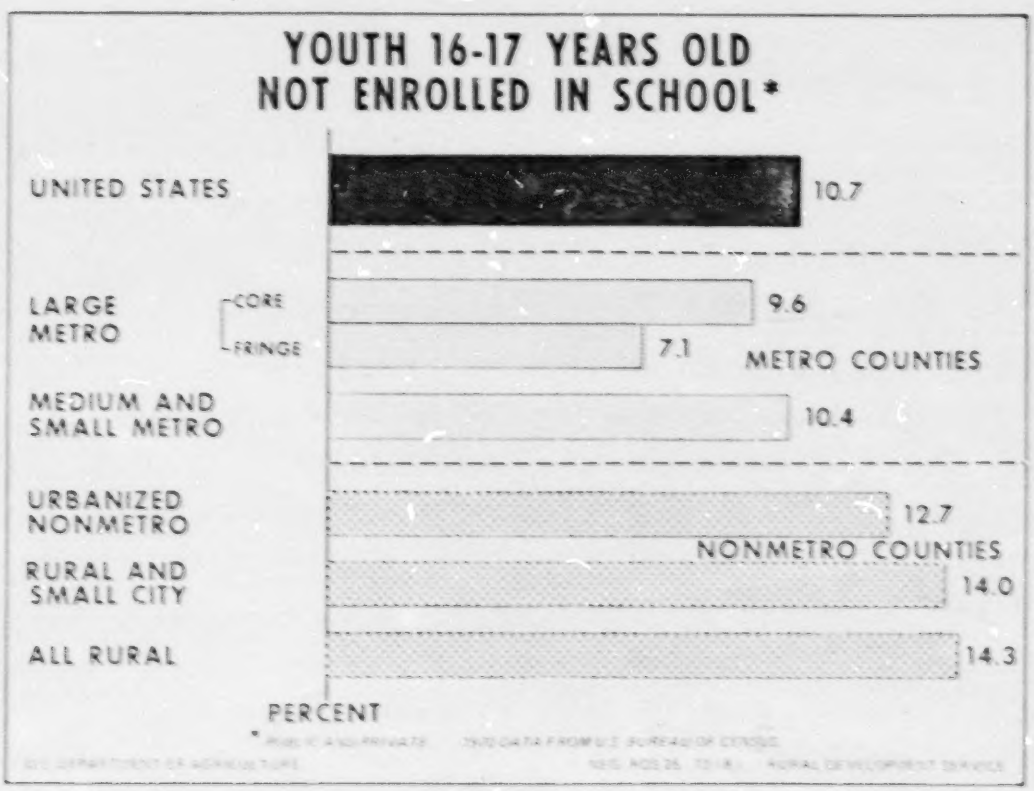
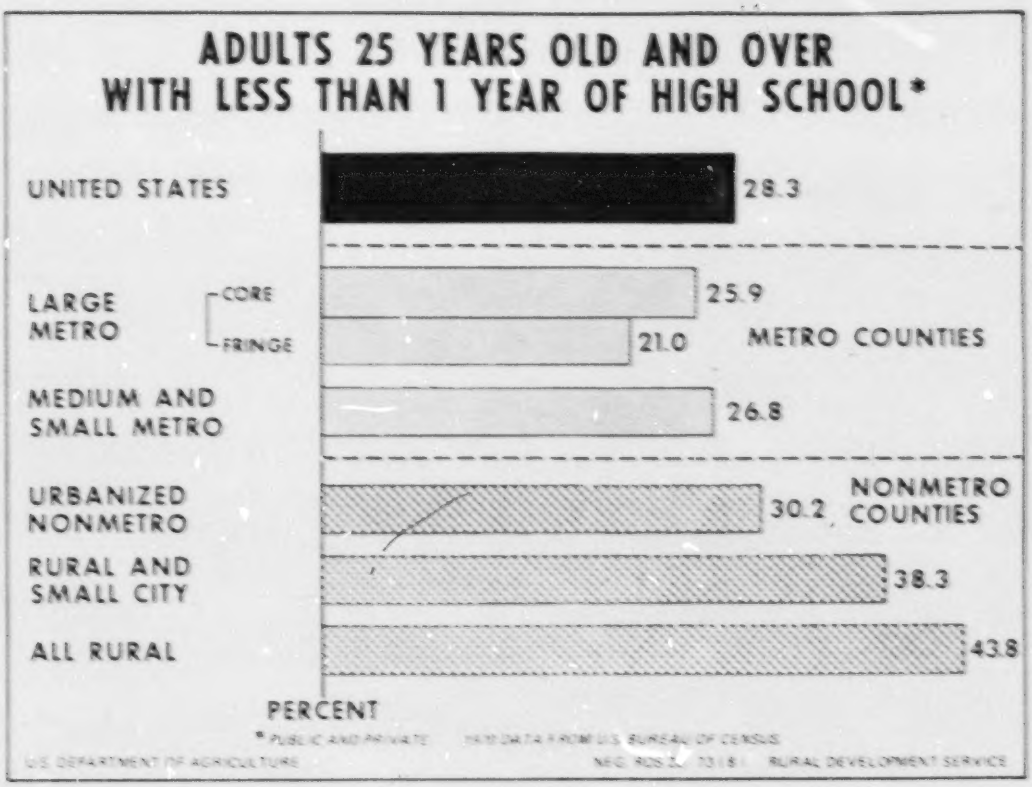
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE


CHILDREN 3-4 YEARS OLD
ENROLLED IN SCHOOL*
UNITED STATES
12.5
LARGE METRO
CORE
FRINGE
16.8
15.5
MEDIUM METRO
12.7
SMALL METRO
11.1
METRO COUNTIES
URBANIZED NONMETRO
8.8
RURAL AND SMALL CITY
5.6
ALL RURAL
4.8
NONMETRO COUNTIES
PERCENT


YOUTH 16-17 YEARS OLD
NOT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL*
UNITED STATES
10.7
LARGE METRO
CORE
FRINGE
9.6
7.1
METRO COUNTIES
MEDIUM AND SMALL METRO
10.4
URBANIZED NONMETRO
12.7
NONMETRO COUNTIES
RURAL AND SMALL CITY
14.0
ALL RURAL
14.3
PERCENT


ADULTS 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER
WITH LESS THAN 1 YEAR OF HIGH SCHOOL*
UNITED STATES
28.3
LARGE METRO
CORE
FRINGE
25.9
21.0
METRO COUNTIES
MEDIUM AND SMALL METRO
26.8
URBANIZED NONMETRO
30.2
NONMETRO COUNTIES
RURAL AND SMALL CITY
38.3
ALL RURAL
43.8
PERCENT
* PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
1970 DATA FROM U.S. BUREAU OF CENSUS
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. RDS-Z- 7318-1
RURAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE



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## ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Edward O. Moe is the Principal Sociologist with the Cooperative State Research Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Dr. Moe's major area of interest is rural sociology; he has been actively studying and working in rural and community development for many years. Dr. Moe is a codeveloper and codesigner of the National Community Leadership Development Laboratories and the Program for Community Change Specialists in the NTL Institute of Applied Behavioral Sciences and of the Community Leadership Program for the Northwest Territories, Canada. Before joining the U. S. Department of Agriculture in 1972, Dr. Moe taught sociology at the university level. At a much earlier date, he was a high school teacher.

Lewis R. Tamblyn is Coordinator of Rural Services in the Division of Field Services of the National Education Association. In this position, Dr. Tamblyn is actively seeking to strengthen rural education. His current areas of emphasis include the reorganization of local school districts and intermediate school districts to permit the extension of specialized educational services to all local schools, the revitalization of the community school concept, the broadening of vocational education programs, and the upgrading of teachers and the improvement of programs and organizations serving teachers in the smaller schools and rural areas. In his early career, Dr. Tamblyn taught in the public schools and served as an elementary school principal.